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OUTLINES
OF
GENERAL HISTORY.

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FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS IN BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.



TORONTO:
JAMES CAMPBELL AND SON.

MDCCCLXXI.

PREFACE.

IN the following work I have aimed at giving, of course in mere outline, a connected narrative of the principal facts in the History of the World. I have endeavoured to group them in such a manner as may help to indicate their relative importance, and show the bearing which one event or age has upon another.

In my book entitled "The Great Events of History" I have described in succession the great landmarks of the Christian Centuries. The present volume takes a wider sweep, for it aims at filling up the gaps necessarily left in following out the plan of its predecessor, and thus presents a complete summary of General History.

It is needless to enlarge upon the uses of such a work in small compass. We must know the history of our own country first and best: then should follow the histories of those adjacent lands, which have influenced

Great Britain most ; but it is also needful for every person of education to possess, in general outline, a knowledge of the History of the whole Civilized World. And such knowledge can be obtained most conveniently from an epitome like the present volume.

W. F. C

EDINBURGH, *February* 1863.

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OUTLINES OF GENERAL HISTORY.

We divide History into three portions :—

1. **Ancient History**, extending from the Creation to the Fall of Rome in 476 A.D.
 2. **Mediæval History**, extending from the Fall of Rome to the Fall of Constantinople in 1453 A.D.
 3. **Modern History**, extending from the Fall of Constantinople to the present time.
-

ANCIENT HISTORY.

The nations, that played the most prominent part in Ancient History, were Egypt, Phœnicia, the Jews, Assyria, Babylon, Persia, Greece, and Rome.

ADAM TO BABEL.

The Bible is our oldest book of History. The first twelve chapters of Genesis narrate almost all we know of the 2000 years between the Creation and the time of Abraham. The date generally assigned to the Creation of Man is 4004 years before the Birth of Christ.

Eden.—We learn from the Bible that our first parents were placed in a beautiful garden, probably among the mountains of Armenia; and that their disobedience of God's command not only caused their expulsion from Eden, but laid the whole human race under sentence of death, as the doom of sin.

Deluge.—In the days of Noah God sent a great Flood to destroy the wicked inhabitants of the earth. Only eight persons were saved alive, being shut, with the various lower animals, in a great ark of gopher-wood, that floated above the mountain-tops and was laid by the subsiding waters on Mount Ararat. Almost every nation on earth preserves the tradition of an ancient Flood. This Deluge, which lasted about a year and did not necessarily cover the whole earth, is said to have begun in the year 2349 B.C.

Babel.—About midway between the time of Noah and that of Abraham occurred that revolution which dispersed the human race. Some descendants of Ham began to build a great tower of brick cemented with bitumen on the site of the city Babylon; but God so confused their language that they could not understand one another, and they therefore stopped building and went away in different directions. Thus arose the varieties of race upon the earth. Each son of Noah was the parent of a great division of mankind, which has had its turn in leading civilization.

The children of Ham began the great work, reaching their highest development in Egypt. Of the descendants of Shem the Assyrians, the Hebrews, and the Phœnicians played the chief part. But it was reserved for the sons of Japheth to rise into the greatest nations of History.

The Japhetic languages, otherwise called Aryan, are spoken from the Ganges to the Thames, and have lately overspread nearly all America. The Semitic tongues belong chiefly to the basin of Euphrates and Tigris, Syria, and the Arabian peninsula.

The five great varieties of man are :—

1. **Caucasian**, inhabiting India, Western Asia, Northern Africa, and nearly all Europe. Colour chiefly white.
2. **Negro**, inhabiting Central and Southern Africa. Black.
3. **Turanian** or **Mongolian**, represented by Tartars, Chinese, and Eskimo. Yellow or olive.
4. **Malay**, scattered over Polynesia. Chiefly brown.
5. **American**. Colour, copper-red.

ABRAHAM TO JOSEPH.

Origin of Hebrews.—A great Chaldean Empire in Mesopotamia—a great Egyptian empire by the Nile—a Syrian centre of power called Damascus—and numerous strongholds of the Canaanites and Philistines existed, when Abram the Hebrew, born in 1996 B.C., was told by God to leave Ur of the Chaldees and travel westward with his family. Resting at Haran for a time, he left it in 1921 B.C., being then seventy-five, and journeyed into the land of Canaan. There he grew rich in cattle, and was recognized as a powerful prince. So powerful did he become, that after the battle of Siddim—the first recorded in history—he was able to measure his strength with the Chaldean victors, from whom he rescued Lot.

Every reader of the Bible knows the story of Isaac, Jacob, and Joseph; and can trace the wonderful thread of Providence in all that befel these men and their kindred, until the family—now increased to seventy souls—was led down to Egypt, to undergo a stern discipline of suffering, from which they were destined to emerge—the nation chosen of God.

HISTORY OF EGYPT.

Mizraim.—Before the call of Abraham a great Hamitic power had grown up in the valley of the Nile. One of the early names of the nation was Mizraim, the name of one of Ham's sons, and a dual word, representing the division of the country into Upper and Lower Egypt. Memphis became the capital of the latter; Thebes of the former region.

Menes (about 2717 B.C.) is regarded as the first king of Egypt. But several dynasties rose and fell in the obscurity of early times. They have left, however, monuments engraved with hieroglyphics, and vast stone pyramids, the tombs of their kings, to tell dimly the story of primeval grandeur. The pyramids of Ghizeh commemorate the monarchs of the Fourth Dynasty.

Shepherd Kings.—In the Twelfth Dynasty an invasion of Semitic warriors, probably Arabs or Phœnicians, overthrew the power of Lower Egypt and seized Memphis. **2080** These conquerors are known in history as the Shepherd Kings. It was during their domination of about five hundred years that the history of the Jews came first in contact with that of Egypt. Some scholars maintain that Abraham visited Egypt in the reign of Salatis, first of the Shepherd Kings; and that Joseph was raised to distinction by Assa, fourth of the line.

Exodus.—At a date variously given between 1491 B.C. and 1652 B.C., the Israelites, increased from a family to a nation, made their Exodus from Egypt. After having dwelt with their flocks in the land of Goshen, along the eastern edge of the Delta, for more than two hundred years, they found a champion and leader in Moses, who conducted them into the wilderness, after God had smitten the cruel Egyptians with plagues that humbled them for a time. It may be noted that Pharaoh is a name common to a great number of the Egyptian kings.

Thebes.—There lay in Upper Egypt on the Nile a city, said to have had a hundred gates, each of which could give egress to an army and its chariots. The traveller, who now views its ruins at Karnak and Uksor, beholds pillared temples and statues of a size so vast as to seem like the work of giant hands. This was the celebrated Thebes, queen of the Upper Nile; and from this centre issued the power that finally expelled the Shepherd Kings.

Sesostris.—The Greeks related the deeds of a great Egyptian king, Sesostris; but they seem to have ascribed to him deeds which were achieved by many heroes of the Nile. The monarch, whose renown is brightest and who best deserves to stand as the original of the legendary Sesostris, was Rameses II., a king of the Nineteenth Dynasty, who began to reign about **1327** B.C. **1327** B.C., and reigned sixty-one years. He waged war **1266** with the Hittites, and carried the sword, some say, even to Thrace and Scythia. He ruled also over Ethiopia. He planned and began a Suez canal, decorated Thebes with temples,

especially the Ramesseum, and placed colossal statues of himself throughout the land.

Egypt and Assyria.—The great empire of Assyria came into collision with that of Egypt, to the loss of the latter. Tiglath-pileser I. claimed to be the conqueror of Egypt about 1120 B.C.; and an Assyrian dynasty probably occupied the throne for a time. Shishak, who defeated Rehoboam and took Jerusalem in 971 B.C., was the first of this race.

Psammetichus.—In Psammetichus (664–611 B.C.) the glory of Egypt gave a bright but dying flash. When the oracle had announced that he, of the Twelve Princes, who should pour wine from a *bronze* cup, should rule the rest, this prince, standing last, and to whom no golden cup was given, filled his helmet and made libation. Another oracle promised him success with the aid of *brass* men; and they appeared, says the legend, in the shape of brass-armoured Ionians, driven ashore by a storm. Forming an army of Greek mercenaries, he faced the Assyrians, from whom he took the city of Ashdod, a frontier fortress in the Philistine country. The siege lasted twenty-nine years. His love of Greek and the Greeks cost him dear; for the Egyptian soldiers deserted him in a mass and went to Ethiopia.

Later Events.—Necho, the next king, took Carchemish on the Euphrates, slew Josiah at Megiddo, and made Jehoiakim vassal-king of Judah. But Nabuchadnezzar, King of Babylon, a new power risen on the ruins of Assyria, soon made Jerusalem his own. Under a later king, Pharaoh-Hophra, this conqueror is thought to have ravaged Egypt and reduced Thebes.

A new conqueror from the East appeared in the Persian Cambyses, son of Cyrus, in whose hands the capture of Pelusium, the key of Eastern Egypt, left all the valley of the Nile—525 B.C. A period of revolt followed; but the final blow was dealt on Egypt by the Persians about 353 B.C., when Nectanebo, last king of the Thirtieth Dynasty, fled up the river into Ethiopia.

In 332 B.C. Egypt fell under the dominion of Alexander of Macedon, who founded on its shore the great sea-port and literary centre called Alexandria. One of his generals, named Ptolemy,

received Egypt as his fragment of the divided empire in 323 B.C.; and thenceforth for three centuries the Ptolemys were kings by the Nile. How Egypt became a Roman province in 30 B.C. will be narrated afterwards.

THE HEBREWS.

Moses.—Prepared by forty years' residence at the court of Pharaoh, and forty years' shepherd-life in the wilderness, Moses entered on his task of leading the Israelites towards the Promised Land. Miracles like the dividing of the Red Sea, the pillars of cloud and fire, and the sending of manna testified to God's special care of His chosen people. They halted for nearly a year by the dark mountains of Sinai, where amid thunders they received the Law; and they then wandered in the wilderness for nine-and-thirty years, partly as a punishment, but also as a means of teaching them reliance on God, and of enabling them to forget the idolatries of Egypt. The miraculous passage of the Red Sea inaugurated this long journey; the miraculous passage of the Jordan closed it. Moses caught only a distant glimpse of the land: it was reserved for Joshua to lead the now consolidated nation into the region of promised rest.

Conquest of the Land.—The Canaanite races were defeated in two great battles: one fought in 1451 B.C. at Bethhoron, when the sun stood still—the other in the following year near the Waters of Merom. But it took seven years to complete the conquest of the land. The country was then parcelled out among the tribes—a region clad with green pastures, its hill-sides dressed with vine and olive, its forests full of honey.

Judges.—Joshua died in 1426 B.C.; and then began the period of the Judges, which lasted for 330 years. It was a troubled time, a succession of lapses into idolatry and fierce attacks by Philistines, Ammonites, Moabites, Midianites, and other foes, which called forth champions like Gideon and Samson. Samuel was the last of the Judges. When the people demanded a king, he anointed Saul, a man of great stature and dark vindictive spirit.

Kings.—Theocracy thus gave place to monarchy. The successor of Saul was David, the great lyric-poet of the Hebrew race, who, distinguishing himself at an early age by his combat with Goliath, was hunted by the unceasing jealousy of the king, on whose throne he was destined to sit.

Having held his court at Hebron for more than seven years, David assumed the sceptre of the whole land in 1048 B.C., and fixed his capital at Jerusalem. His power finally extended from Egypt to the Euphrates, and from Syria to the Red Sea. He held an alliance with Hiram, King of Tyre, a city of Phœnicia which was already rising to commercial greatness.

Greatest Splendour.—The reign of Solomon (1015-975 B.C.) was the most splendid period of the Hebrew history. His ships sailed both on the Mediterranean and the Indian Ocean. His wisdom attracted eminent visitors from the limits of the known world. And, as if to crown his reign with a surpassing splendour, for him was reserved the privilege of building that great Temple of God, whose cedar-work and gold, lilies and pomegranates are described with loving minuteness in the Book of Kings, and the prayer of whose dedication went up to heaven with the smoke of countless sacrifices. If the splendour was great, great also was the shame of Solomon's reign; for, allured by his idolatrous wives, this wise king forgot his wisdom, and set up strange altars in the land.

The division of the kingdom followed the death of Solomon. Disputed with the insolence of Rehoboam, Solomon's son, ten tribes followed Jeroboam, who established himself at Shechem, as King of Israel. To Rehoboam were left but two, forming the kingdom of Judah. 975 B.C.

Israel.—The history of Israel is a tale of blood and sin. The wickedness of her kings culminated in Ahab, whose wife Jezebel outdid her lord in crimes. His capital was Samaria. Wars with Judah and Syria cost Israel much; but a worse foe arose in the East. Tiglath-pileser, King of Assyria, carried into exile the tribes east of Jordan; but a final blow fell on Israel, when her last king Hoshea yielded to the Assyrian Shalmaneser; and the

ten tribes were carried into captivity—721 B.C. The land was peopled with Babylonian settlers, who, coalescing with a few Hebrews, formed the nucleus of the Samaritan race.

Judah.—The kingdom of Judah held out during 135 years longer. Three reigns shine bright in its annals. The wise reforms of Jehoshaphat were somewhat tarnished by his fatal alliance with Ahab. Hezekiah, fired by the eloquence and wisdom of the prophet Isaiah, restored the ancient worship. And the pious Josiah contributed to advance the same good work. It was in Hezekiah's reign that the army of Sennacherib, King of Assyria, was destroyed in a single night, probably near Pelusium.

Nebuchadnezzar, King of Babylon, was the evil genius of Judah. Reducing Jerusalem in 605 B.C., he carried off the flower of the Jewish youth into a captivity which lasted for seventy years. Shadowy vassal-kings reigned for a time in the city of David; but the end soon came (586 B.C.), and the population of Judah were all torn from their homes to pine in Babylon. The restoration of the Jews by the edict of Cyrus, in 536 B.C., will form a new starting-point in their history.

CHALDÆA—ASSYRIA—BABYLON.

We have already mentioned great kingdoms that rose in the basin of Euphrates and Tigris—the cradle of the human race—and connected themselves closely with the history of both Egyptians and Jews. The twin streams, rising on opposite sides of Mount Niphates, enclose a great triangular plain, which became the seat of three successive monarchies.

Of these the oldest was **Chaldæa**. It was founded by Nimrod, son of Cush, whose name is still attached to the great pyramidal heap of ruins called *Birs Nimrud*, built of bricks stamped with writing in wedge-shaped characters. Babylon was chief in the tetrapolis, or system of four cities, founded by this Hamitic dynasty. Chedorlaomer, defeated by Abraham, was a leading Chaldæan king. We owe to this ancient people the rudiments of arithmetic and astronomy. In 1518 B.C. a coalition of Arab

tribes swept, like a destructive simoom, from the desert, and overthrew the Chaldean power.

Assyria.—This, the second of the great monarchies of the East, was founded by Asshur, who left Chaldæa and marked out the site of Nineveh, near where the Great Zab joins the Tigris. Names bright with ancient romance meet us at once. Revolting from the King of Babylon, say Greek legends, Ninus went on a career of victory, until he came to Bactra. Then the conqueror was conquered. For **Semiramis**, wife of a Bactrian noble, displayed such courage in the capture of the city, that she won the love of Ninus and became his queen. He soon died; and outside the walls of Nineveh, which he had built, she raised a pyramid to his memory. And then the widow surpassed in military renown the husband she had lost, until a great defeat in India brought her to a check. The building of Nineveh was ascribed to him: to her, the decorations of Babylon. After a line of worthless descendants, the myth describes the extinction of the dynasty in **Sardanapalus**, an effeminate prince, who lived in his harem, dressed in woman's clothes, until the approach of Arbaces, satrap of Media, stung him to action. The effeminate monarch displayed the courage of a soldier, and, when hope was gone, heaped his treasures into a vast funeral-pile, and died amid its flames with all his wives.

Amyrian history falls into two periods: the Upper Dynasty (1273–747 B.C.)—and the Lower Dynasty (747–625 B.C.) These periods are divided by the *Era of Nabonassar*, who effected a revolution in Babylon in 747 B.C.

After Nin, the head of the list, Tiglath-pileser (Tiger Lord of Asshur) and his son Asshur-dani-pal (the original of Sardanapalus, but totally unlike that mythic prince) are notable among the kings of the Upper Dynasty. To this time belong the winged bulls and lions, and the sculptured palace walls, which have been dug from the mounds by the Tigris.

In the records of the Lower Dynasty we find the names of another Tiglath and Shalmaneser, two kings already mentioned as the conquerors of Israel. But the most glorious reign in

Assyrian history was that of **Sennacherib** (702-680 B.C.). Besides beautifying Nineveh with a magnificent palace, he turned to deeds of war. He fought with Babylon and with the nations of the west. Crossing Euphrates, he advanced until confronted by the Egyptians; and then, turning upon Hezekiah, who had been encouraged to revolt, he laid siege to Jerusalem, exacted a tribute, and stripped the Jewish King of some territory. The sudden destruction of his army probably occurred during another movement upon Egypt. Some time later he was murdered in the temple of Nisroch by his sons.

The vast Assyrian Empire, never better than a loosely tied bundle of petty states, then began to fall to pieces. And behind the mountains of Zagros, on the table-land of Iran, a power was growing, destined to smite it with destruction.

Nineveh was rather a cluster of fortified palaces and temples, with occasional fringes of meaner dwellings, scattered along the bank of Tigris, than what is now understood by a city. For about sixty miles mounds of ruin exist by the river; and out of some of these remarkable works of art have been dug. But the heart of the vanished city seems to be represented by the heaps which are opposite *Mosul*.

In 625 B.C., when Saracus was king, an allied force of Medes, Chaldeans, and Babylonians, the latter headed by Nabopolassar, a revolted Assyrian general, marched against **625** *Nineveh*. The king resisted the siege, until a flood of the Tigris swept a part of the wall away and admitted the foe. He then set fire to his palace; and a great flame consumed his city and himself.

Babylon.—Babylon, which had never lost a certain degree of independence, and which had undergone a favourable change under Nabonassar in 747 B.C., now revived with new vigour.

Nabopolassar (625-604 B.C.), having received this city for his services in the overthrow of *Nineveh*, set himself to consolidate his empire. But the clasping arm of Media was always round him on the east and north.

It was under his greater son, **Nebuchadnezzar**, that the empire

reached its height of glory. Having in earlier life proved the sharpness of his sword upon Egypt, he, during his reign of forty-three years (604-561 B.C.), undertook other wars, in which the siege of Tyre and the sieges of Jerusalem stand out as conspicuous achievements. The former lasted for thirteen years; the final destruction of the latter city took place in 586 B.C.

Babylon, whose site was in the vicinity of *Hillah*, a modern Arab village, was a square city, at least five times as large as London, and traversed by the Euphrates like a diagonal. Its walls—338 feet high and 85 feet thick—were studded with towers and pierced with brazen gates. Its palaces and its hanging gardens—a system of terraces formed, to please a Median queen, in imitation of mountain scenery—were among the wonders of the world.

In 608 B.C. Nebuchadnezzar, among other Jewish captives, carried off a youth named Daniel. To him we owe our most vivid knowledge of this great king. His dreams and their meaning—the golden idol and the fiery furnace—and that terrible insanity of seven years, during which the greatest monarch in the world fancied himself a beast, are familiar stories of our childhood.

Then came four kings, the last being Nabonadius. He made his son Belshazzar a partner of his throne; and, when the sire fled before Cyrus to Borsippa, the foolish and arrogant son held sway in Babylon. One day, in a fit of unusual folly, he brought the sacred Jewish vessels, taken by Nebuchadnezzar, into the banquet-hall, and used them in revelry and idolatrous libation. A hand traced upon the wall words of doom, which the Hebrew prophet alone could read. That hour these words 538
were in process of fulfilment. Setting the Persians to turn B.C.
the Euphrates from its bed, Cyrus made his way to the quays. The river-gates were not shut. The foe poured in; and in the carnage Belshazzar was slain. Thus fell the Babylonian power in 538 B.C.

MEDO-PERSIAN EMPIRE.

Medes.—On the table-land east of the chain Zagros dwelt a hardy Japhetic race, the Medes, with whom are always associated

the Persians, who seem to have been the flower of the Aryan stock. At first the Medes were supreme, their kingdom being founded by Cyaxares about 633 B.C. This monarch achieved two things—he destroyed Nineveh in 625 B.C., and he extended the Median power to the river Halys in Asia Minor.

Lydia.—There was then in Asia Minor, between the Hermus and the Meander, a powerful state called Lydia, a territory rich in gold and other mineral wealth. With Alyattes, King of Lydia, the Median monarch came into collision; and for six years a war went on, until an eclipse of the sun, occurring in the midst of a battle, frightened the combatants into a peace.

Persians.—Astyages the Mede was dethroned in 558 B.C. by Cyrus the Persian. The Persians were a hardy yet poetic race of mountaineers, akin to the Medes. They worshipped the elements; their priests were the *Magi*; their great prophet was Zoroaster, who taught the worship of Light. Divided into ten tribes, they mustered a splendid force of cavalry and a host of skilful archers. From such came Cyrus by the father's side.

Cyrus.—Both Herodotus and Xenophon exalted Cyrus into the rank of a hero of romance. The following is the current story of his early life.

Astyages, having dreamed that his daughter's son should conquer all Asia, entrusted to a courtier, Harpagus, the task of killing the little Cyrus, whose father was a Persian noble. Harpagus gave the child to a herdsman, who promised to expose it on the mountains. But the herdsman was led to substitute his own dead baby for the living prince, who grew up in a humble station. The secret was disclosed, when Cyrus began to lord it over his play-fellows, and beat them. A noble's son complained to the king; and the royal boy was recognized. Astyages took a barbarous revenge on Harpagus, by cooking the courtier's son and serving up the flesh for the father to partake of. Cyrus

558

B.C.

was sent to his father; and Harpagus bided his time of reprisal. When the time was ripe, he sent a secret message to Cyrus, who invaded Media, was welcomed by crowds

of deserting troops, and by their aid overturned the Median throne—555 B.C.

Cræsus.—This last King of Lydia was the most famous. The name of Cræsus (565–554 B.C.) became a proverb for great wealth. He it was whose boast of happiness was rebuked by Solon the Wise, with the words, “that no man can be called happy till he dies.” Extending his dominion eastward to the Halys, he was rash enough to measure his strength with Cyrus. The Persian suddenly appeared before the towered rock of Sardis, and put the Lydian cavalry to flight by forming his front line of camels, an animal hated by the horse. The siege of Sardis then began. A Lydian, who had dropped his helmet over the edge of the rock and was climbing down for it, was seen by a Mede, who ascended by the same path; other soldiers following, the citadel was taken, 554 B.C. When Cræsus was mounting the funeral-pile, to which Cyrus condemned him, he uttered Solon’s name thrice in a mournful tone. Cyrus asked the meaning of the exclamation; and on hearing the story of Solon’s rebuke granted life and favour to the fallen king. Asia Minor in general soon acknowledged the supremacy of Cyrus.

Jews Restored.—The second great event in the reign of Cyrus was the conquest of Babylon, already described. An immediate result of his success was the celebrated Edict of 536 B.C., by which he restored the captive Jews to their own land, providing them with food and money for the journey, collecting their sacred vessels from the Babylonian temples, and even adding offerings for the Temple. Such was the fulfilment of the prophetic words, in which Isaiah uttered the very name of this king, so favoured of God.

Death of Cyrus.—The twenty-nine years of Cyrus’ reign closed in a war with the Mægæstæ, a Scythian tribe dwelling east of the Caspian. Tomyris, the barbarian queen, wreaked a brutal revenge on her dead enemy by dipping his head in a skinful of gore, “to give him,” she said, “his fill of blood.” The sword of Cyrus extended the Persian Empire from the Indus to the Hellespont, from the Jax-

artes to the Syrian shore. Egypt was the only important territory afterwards added to it.

Cambyses.—The son of Cyrus succeeded him, and reigned for seven years (529–522 B.C.). The chief event of Cambyses' reign was his invasion of Egypt in 525 B.C. Led by a mercenary guide across the desert between Philistia and Egypt, he took Memphis, and soon afterwards forced the Egyptian king Psammetichus to drink poison. Among his efforts to extend his power in Egypt was the despatch of an army of 50,000 to destroy the temple in the Oasis of Ammon, now called *Sicah*; but the expedition perished—probably in a simoom, although the current story asserted that they were whelmed in a sand-storm. Cambyses gave way in Egypt to his wantonness and cruelty. He shocked the Egyptians by stabbing a calf, which they regarded as sacred. On one occasion, when a courtier told him at his own request that popular rumour blamed him for drinking to excess, he proved the steadiness of his hand and eye by piercing the heart of that courtier's son with an arrow. He also murdered his brother Smerdis. But a Magian impostor, professing to be Smerdis, proclaimed himself king; and, when the news reached Cambyses, he went to mount his horse, and was accidentally wounded in the thigh with the point of his own dagger—522 B.C.

Darius I.—A few months saw the death of Smerdis, upon which Darius Hystaspes, a monarch second only to Cyrus in fame, ascended the Persian throne. His reign lasted for thirty-six years (521–485 B.C.). He organized the vast empire, making roads to every part, and so binding the distant provinces to the great centres of Persian power. These were Susa, the spring residence of the king; Ecbatana, his summer abode; and Babylon, the winter quarters. The power of the *Satrap*s, as the governors of provinces were called, was checked by frequently giving the command of the soldiers and the administration of law to hands independent of them.

Darius waged important wars in opposite corners of his realm. He sent soldiers into India, and he went in person across the Danube to fight with the Scythians. It was here that the

Greeks kept guard over his bridge of boats, and Miltiades proposed to destroy the Persian army by breaking it up—a proposal foiled by the craft of Histieus. While Artaphernes, brother of Darius, was ruling the western provinces, Ionia revolted from the Persian King (501 B.C.). This brought Greece and Persia into collision; and on the plain of Marathon (490 B.C.) the despot of the East learned a lesson, of which more shall afterwards be said.

He was preparing for a second invasion of Greece, when a revolt in Egypt turned him from the project. His death took place in the following year—485 B.C.

Later Events.—Nearly all that is striking in the history of ancient Persia henceforth interweaves itself with the story of Greece, and shall be more fully set forth there.

Xerxes—the Ahasuerus of Esther *—who reigned from 485 B.C. to 465 B.C., recovered Egypt, but underwent terrible defeats at Thermopylæ and Salamis. He was murdered by conspirators.

Artaxerxes Longimanus (464–425 B.C.) and Darius II. succeeded; but greater events happened in the reign of Artaxerxes Memon, to whose time belong the Retreat of the Ten Thousand and the campaigns of Agesilaus. It was Darius Codomannus who fought with Alexander the Great at Arbela in 331 B.C., and was slain by Bessus, Satrap of Bactria.

OTHER ANCIENT STATES.

Phœnicia.—The land called Phœnicia, from the Greek *Phœnice*, "land of the date-palm," was a strip between Lebanon and the sea. Its shore, rich in good anchorage for ships, came to be the seat of great sea-ports, of which Tyre and Sidon were the most celebrated. It is probable that the population, originally Hamitic, was overwhelmed by a Semitic wave. Growing strong in commerce, Phœnicia rose to be the great colonizing power in the ancient world. The first step was naturally to Cyprus; but it is easy to see how the rakish fifty-oared galleys would dart across

* Ahasuerus was a name applied to several Persian monarchs. In Daniel it represents Cyrus—in Ezra, Cambyses—in Esther, Xerxes.

to Asia Minor, visit the Grecian shores, cross to Sicily, from that centre reach Africa by way of Malta, and Spain by way of Sardinia and the Balearic Isles, and would even venture through the great gate of the Mediterranean and breast the waves of the Atlantic. In later times her ships reached the Canaries and the southern shores of Britain. Among their earliest colonies we find Gades (*Cadiz*) in Spain, and Utica in Africa. The legend of Cadmus, a Phœnician emigrant, who founded Thebes in Bœotia, and taught the alphabet to the Greeks, is based on some early colonizing expedition.

Sidon and Tyre existed—the former having the greater power—at the time that Canaan was divided among the tribes. These cities were included in Asher, but were not subdued by the Hebrews. A blow inflicted upon Sidon by the Philistines raised Tyre to higher power.

When Hiram, the friend and ally of David and Solomon, was king, the commerce of Tyre was very extensive. Her ships sailed to Tarshish (the south of Spain), and on another sea sought the gold of Ophir along the eastern coast of Africa. Phœnicia grew rich also by exports, of which the chief were the embroidery and glass of Sidon, and the Tyrian purple, a dye yielded by the local shell-fish, in the shape of a single drop of cream-coloured juice from each mollusc. There was also an active slave-trade.

The marriage of wicked Ahab, King of Israel, with wicked Jezebel, daughter of Ethbaal, King of the Sidonians, brought misery on the former land. This Ethbaal was a priest, who had succeeded in overturning the dynasty and founding a sacerdotal power.

The greatest of the Phœnician colonies was Carthage—the New City—founded near Utica on the African coast, in a central commanding position. The legend runs as follows:—

Pygmalion and his sister Dido were the great-grandchildren of Ethbaal. Dido's husband, a wealthy priest, was murdered by Pygmalion, who hoped to secure his riches. But Dido carried off the treasure, and sailed away with a retinue of discontented Tyrians. They finally landed on the African coast and built the citadel *Byrsa*, from which grew Carthage. The story concludes

by describing the suicide of Dido on a vast pyre, in order to escape from a marriage with the Libyan king. The foundation of Carthage is assigned to the year 878 B.C. A probable conjecture supposes the real origin of this great city to have been the building of a factory by the merchants of Utica, to whom aid came from the mother-city.

Tyre underwent several sieges, the most noted being those by Sargon the Assyrian (721-717 B.C.)—Nebuchadnezzar, King of Babylon (598-585 B.C.)—and Alexander the Great (332 B.C.).

The Persians under Cyrus gained ascendancy in Phœnicia, and for a considerable time the Phœnician navies formed a far-stretching arm of Persian power. The land of Phœnicia then came to be a prize contested by Syria and Egypt, falling to the latter in the days of Antiochus the Great—198 B.C. Neither the foundation of Alexandria as a rival port, nor the subjugation of Syria by the Romans destroyed the commercial greatness of Tyre; for she still gathered into her ships the riches of the East, and sent them abroad through the Great Sea. It was not until the Middle Ages that her light went out: and she became a "place for the drying of nets."

Aram.—The descendants of Aram, one of the five sons of Shem, occupied the highlands of Syria and Mesopotamia. The city of Damascus and the state Hamath appear frequently in the history of the Jews. King David achieved a great victory over Hadadezer, King of Zobah, and defeated also a great army from Damascus, which reduced that city to a tributary condition. Rezon, a servant of defeated Hadadezer, maintained a guerilla warfare among the mountains, and in the days of Solomon succeeded in re-establishing the power of Damascus. Henceforth Israel had a formidable foe to contend with on the north. Benhadad I. troubled Israel with war. Benhadad II. fought with Ahab, and received a terrible defeat at Aphek. Hazael, servant of this Syrian monarch, smothered his master by laying a wet cloth on his face, and thus became king. He carried off the sacred vessels from the Temple at Jerusalem. But the end came, when Rezin was King of Damascus and that state had existed as a

kingdom for 235 years. Tiglath-pileser of Assyria came against Damascus, killed the king, and carried off the people into captivity—740 B.C. Syria rose into new splendour after the death of Alexander the Great, when one of his generals, Seleucus, established a dynasty, to which the celebrated Antiochus afterwards belonged. But the closing pages of Syrian history belong to the annals of Rome.

States in Asia Minor.—Very early in history we find in the peninsula of Asia Minor the names of certain kingdoms, which are connected with the poetry and fable of the Greeks. Such was *Troy* or *Iliou*, besieged for ten years by a host of confederate Greeks under Agamemnon, King of Mycenæ. The fall of Troy is assigned to the year 1184 B.C. In the centre of the peninsula was *Phrygia*, whose peasant-king, chosen in obedience to an oracle as he jolted in his waggon into the market-place, placed the cart in the temple. The twisted piece of bark, joining the pole to the axle, formed the celebrated Gordian Knot, severed by the sword of Alexander. Midas, whose gold-creating finger and ass's ears are familiar to every reader of Greek mythology, was the son of Gordius. But far greater than these realms was the kingdom of *Lydia*, of which some account has been already given.

The western coast and islands of Asia Minor became Greek at an early period. The *Æolian* Greeks settled in Lesbos and on the adjacent shore, where Smyrna for a while was their most important city. The *Ionians*, an offshoot from Athens, occupied the two great islands of Chios and Samos and the coast between Hermus and Meander. Ephesus and Miletus were the chief Ionian cities. The *Dorians* held Caria and the adjacent islands, especially Rhodes. These Grecian States became tributary, for the most part—at first to Lydia under Cræsus, and afterwards to Persia.

HISTORY OF GREECE.

Colonization.—From Egypt, Phœnicia, and Asia Minor colonists passed over the sea to Greece, and laid the foundation of her earliest cities. The story of the *Trojan War* is the first

occasion on which the Greeks appear prominently in history as warriors. The ten years' siege of Troy, closing in 1184 B.C., afforded brilliant material for early poetry: the great Epic poet Homer founded his *Iliad* and *Odyssey* on certain incidents and consequences of this war.

The Return of the Heracleids—a movement of northern Greeks upon the south—was the second great event in Grecian history. Starting from Epirus, they descended into Thessaly, and afterwards conquered Bœotia. This was called the *Æolian Migration*—1124 B.C. A band of Dorians from the north slope of Parnassus moved, twenty years later, towards the Peloponnesus, and, crossing the strait, overspread the peninsula—1104 B.C.

Sparta.—Of the Dorian States, thus founded in the Peloponnesus, Sparta soon shot ahead. She owed her organization to the great lawgiver Lycurgus, who commenced his patriotic toil in 884 B.C. To make the Spartan youth into brave and hardy soldiers, was the great object of his system of education. When his work of legislation was complete, he exacted an oath from the Spartans that they would make no change in his laws, until he returned from his travels: and he then left his native land for ever.

Messenian Wars.—Sparta soon came into collision with Messenia, a grassy tract lying to the west. The invaders seized Amphip, whereupon the Messenians fortified Ithome. The first war lasted for twenty years (743–723 B.C.); the second, in which Iira was the Messenian stronghold and Aristomenes the Messenian hero, lasted for seventeen (685–668 B.C.). The result was a dispersion of the Messenians in various colonies, of which one—Messina in Sicily—retains its name to this day.

Athens.—As Sparta had her Lycurgus, so Athens had her great statesman Solon, who gave laws to the flower of the Ionic race. When Codrus, King of Athens, sacrificed his life to save his city from her Dorian assailants (1068 B.C.), the name of King was abolished, and Athens was ruled by Archons. Confusion took place; and Draco issued a code of laws so severe that they were said to be written in blood. But it was upon Solon, a native of Salamis, that the great task of shaping the Athenian Constitution

devolved. Named Archon in 594 B.C., he relieved hopeless debtors, abolished most of Draco's laws, and organized the government. Before his death, which took place in 559 B.C., he saw the beginning of a revolution, which ultimately raised Pisistratus to the head of Athenian affairs. As Tyrant, which in its earlier sense simply meant a democratic usurper, he ruled wisely for many years, encouraging literature, and especially distinguishing himself by collecting in writing the scattered Homeric lays. Upon his death in 527 B.C., his power devolved upon his three sons; and the survivor of these, Hippias, was expelled from Athens with the aid of a Spartan force, 510 B.C.

Persian Wars.—Greece and Persia soon afterwards came into warlike collision. We have already seen how the great Eastern monarchy, founded by Cyrus and built up by Cambyses, was consolidated by Darius Hystaspes, who became king in 521 B.C.

First War.—The aid given by Athens to Aristagoras of Miletus, who had taken up arms against the Persian monarch, drew down the wrath of Darius upon Greece. After a preliminary failure in 492 B.C. by Mardonius, a great Persian fleet sailed across the Ægean, under the command of Datis and Artaphernes. Hippias was on board. After reducing several islands, a descent was made on Eubœa, when the town of Eretria fell. But the plain of *Marathon* was the final scene. There, between the mountains and the sea, one of the greatest conflicts in history took place. The Athenians had no aid except six hundred men from Platœa. Their leader on the day of battle was Miltiades, who as Tyrant of the Thracian Chersonese had already become acquainted with the Persians during a campaign 490 B.C. of Darius in Scythia. Permitting the Asiatics to pierce his centre, this skilful general closed his wings upon them, and inflicted a decisive defeat, which brought the war to an end—490 B.C.

Second War.—Xerxes, the son of Darius, resolved to avenge the Persian loss at Marathon. After spending four years in preparation, he crossed the Hellespont with a force of nearly two millions. Athens and Sparta united their strength to resist him.

Leonidas, with three hundred Spartans and five thousand others, withstood the Persian host at the pass of *Thermopylæ*, between the sea and a ridge of precipitous cliffs. The defence was successful, until a traitor led a band of Persians by a path across the mountains, and thus enabled them to attack the Greeks in the rear. The Spartans died almost to a man: seven hundred brave Thespians shared their fate—480 B.C. 480 The Persians, however, sustained a great defeat in the B.C. narrow strait of *Salamis*, where the wily Athenian, Themistocles, forced the allied Greek fleet to give them battle. Xerxes then hurried back to Asia, leaving Mardonius with 300,000 men to continue the war. This general was defeated and slain by the Greeks at *Platæa*; and on the very same day a victory, won by the Greeks on the promontory of *Mycale* in Asia Minor, filled Xerxes with alarm that these invincible Europeans might think of striking at the heart of his own empire in reprisal for his invasion. A colleague of Themistocles in the war against the Persians was Aristides the Just, the great political work of whose life was the formation of a vast Ionian Confederacy, at the head of which stood Athens. The Third Persian War (464–455 B.C.), and the formation in 445 B.C. of a Thirty Years' Truce between Athens and Sparta, carry us on to the age of Athenian splendour under Pericles.

Age of Pericles.—The leaders of parties in Athens now came to be Cimon, head of the aristocratic faction, and Pericles, who represented democracy. The banishment of Cimon left Pericles without a rival. Under him art and literature flourished exceedingly at Athens, and the foundation was laid of that intellectual supremacy, which Athens maintained over the ancient world.

Peloponnesian War.—Before the death of Pericles, the rivalry between Athens and Sparta had broken out into a contest, known as the Peloponnesian War (432–404 B.C.). Sparta, a military power, represented the aristocratic principle; Athens, a naval power, represented democracy. The Thirty Years' Truce was only half expired at the outbreak of hostilities.

The immediate occasion of the war was a conflict between

Corinth and one of her colonies, Coreyra. Siding with the latter, Athens excited the wrath of the Dorian Confederacy; and a Spartan army invaded Attica (431 B.C.). While Pericles lived, his plan of warfare was followed; namely, the concentration of Athenian force within the city, and the devastation of the enemy's coasts with Athenian ships. But he died in 429 B.C.; and his place was but poorly filled by the noisy Cleon.

The revolt of *Lesbos* from Athens, and the brave defence of *Plataea* against the Spartans were great events in the earlier part of the war. The affair at *Sphacteria*, where the blockaded Athenians were relieved by Cleon; and the defeat of the Athenians at *Delium* in Bœotia were also notable. Brasidas, the famous Spartan general, and Cleon the Athenian were both slain at Amphipolis, the victory remaining with the Spartans. The Peace of Nicias (421 B.C.) then gave a temporary rest to the combatants. Though made for fifty years, it lasted only a few months.

Alcibiades, a handsome dissolute pupil of Socrates, induced the Argives to renew the war. He then persuaded the Athenians to send an expedition against *Syracuse*, a Greek colony in Sicily. The command of the armament was given to Nicias, Lamachus, and Alcibiades; but the last-named, being recalled to Athens on a charge of impiety, contrived to escape to Sparta. The Syracusan expedition was a total failure; and the attempt of the army to escape by land ended in ignominious surrender. These events of the Sicilian campaign occurred in 415–413 B.C.

Alcibiades passed from Sparta to Sardis, where he made a friend of Tissaphernes the Persian satrap. By the recovery of *Eubœa*, and some brilliant naval victories, he secured a triumphal return to Athens, when tears of joy welcomed him. But the intrigues of a hostile faction drove him into a second exile. Athens, with the madness that precedes ruin, executed six of her generals; and a fatal blow fell, when Lysander surprised their beached galleys at *Ægos-potami* in the Hellespont (405 B.C.). The siege and surrender of Athens in the following year brought the war to an end. We owe our knowledge of this contest chiefly to Thucy-

didus, who wrote the history of its first twenty-one years: Xenophon narrates the events of the remaining six.

Thirty Tyrants.—Thirty magistrates, called the *Thirty Tyrants*, ruled Athens with the aid of a Spartan force, until Themistocles seized the Piræus, and deposed the rapacious archons. A Council of Ten was then elected. Athens stooped to receive Persian gold for the rebuilding of the Long Walls and the ramparts of the Piræus, which Lysander had destroyed. This was but one of many preparations, that were making throughout Greece, to curb the overbearing pride of Sparta.

The expedition of Cyrus (401–400 B.C.) afforded to the world a fine example of Greek prowess and fortitude. Starting from Sardis, 13,000 Greeks, under Clearchus, a Spartan, marched to the Euphrates, and fought the battle of Cunaxa victoriously; but Cyrus was killed. Then began the *Retreat of the Ten Thousand*, in which the historian Xenophon was their leader. Through Media and Armenia they struggled on to the shore of the Black Sea, whence they made their way home.

The ascendancy of Sparta was well maintained by Agesilaus. But a naval defeat at Cnidus (394 B.C.) shook her power; and soon the Peace of Antalcidas was concluded (387 B.C.), giving up the Asiatic cities to the Persian King.

Sparta and Thebes.—As the power of Sparta shook, that of Thebes grew bright and strong. The two rivals soon engaged in war. Phobidas, a Spartan general, seized the Cadmea, or citadel of Thebes; but the foreign garrison was expelled by a band headed by the brave Pelopidas. Athens sent assistance to Thebes; and Pelopidas, chiefly with the aid of the famous Sacred Band, consisting of 300 chosen Thebans, secured the supremacy of Thebes in Boeotia. But Athens then deserted her ally; and Thebes maintained the struggle alone. Cleombrotus the Spartan, with 10,000 men, was signally defeated at *Lance- 371*
me by Epaminondas and Pelopidas, who led only 6000 371
soldiers to battle, 371 B.C.

The Thebans then began to invade the Peloponnese; but they were not successful in reducing Sparta. Arcadia, at first

their friend, broke off, as Athens had done, from their alliance. Pelopidas fell in a Thessalian war; and at *Mantinea*, facing a confederate host of Spartans, Arcadians, and Athenians, the great Epaminondas died of a spear-wound in the breast—362 B.C.

THE MACEDONIAN EMPIRE.

Origin.—A fourth claimant for supreme power now arose in the north, where the kingdom of Macedon had been growing for about three centuries. Its territory was separated from Thrace by the River Strymon, and from Thessaly by Mount Olympus. A population of Illyrian and Thracian tribes, with a mixture of Hellenic settlers, occupied the soil.

Philip.—The residence of Philip, son of Amyntas, in Thebes, where he was detained as a hostage, afforded him an opportunity of studying Greek literature and politics. And, when he
359 ascended the throne in 359 B.C., he organized an army,
 B.C. which in his skilful hand proved to be a weapon of victory. He began by seizing Amphipolis, and establishing the military station of Philippi. Choosing a time when the Athenians were embarrassed with a Social War, which cost them the control of many islands, he interfered in the Sacred War, which had arisen in 357 B.C. between Thebes and Phocis. A victory over the Phocians left him master of Thessaly: and he then laid vigorous siege to Olynthus, which he took and levelled to the ground. Meanwhile the great Athenian orator Demosthenes had been uttering the thunder of his voice in warnings, which his countrymen took but tardily. The conquering Northern then overran Phocis, and received a seat in the Amphictyonic Council. It was at Perinthus and Byzantium in the north that the Macedonians and Athenians first came into collision. The Athenians under Phocion forced him to raise the siege of these cities. His sudden seizure of Elatea brought about an alliance between Athens and Thebes. But victory crowned the Macedonian arms at *Chæronæa* (338 B.C.); and Athens gladly accepted the humiliating terms of peace offered

by the conqueror. A Macedonian garrison occupied Thebes. All things augured success to Philip, until an assassin named Pausanias slew him at Thebes during the procession of a marriage—336 B.C.

Alexander the Great, aged twenty, then ascended the throne. Bred with campaigning in Scythia and Illyria, he fell suddenly on Thebes, which had revolted against the Macedonian garrison, and put the inhabitants to the sword. Athens trembled in expectation of similar treatment; but a plan for the conquest of Asia filled the mind of the ambitious youth.

Leaving Antipater as regent in Macedonia, he crossed the Hellespont with a small army, and advanced to the *Granicus*—334 B.C. A Persian army, lining the banks of this stream, could not withstand the charge of the phalanx, which Alexander led in person. He then passed victoriously through Asia Minor, among other achievements "cutting the Gordian Knot," which fastened the pole of a Phrygian car at Gordium. Meanwhile, the Persian king, Darius Codomannus, had been getting his ponderous army into marching order, and moving towards the scene of action. The monarchs of East and West met in conflict on the narrow plains of *Issus*, where the vastness of the Persian army proved to be worse than useless. The rout was complete. Darius fled with speed, leaving his mother and his wife as captives—333 B.C.

Alexander's next achievement was the reduction of Tyre. The siege cost him seven months; but he built a pier across the strait, half a mile wide, which separated the island-city from the mainland, and thus gained access to the walls, which were battered and carried by storm. He then reduced Gaza, paid a visit to Jerusalem, and passed into Egypt, whose people desired to throw off the Persian yoke. The foundation of the great seaport Alexandria, on the site of a village called *Racotis*, was a result of his sojourn in that country.

But the invasion of Persia called him eastward. Effecting the passage of the Euphrates at *Thapsacus*, he marched through Mesopotamia, and then struck down the Tigris. Darius chose the plain of *Gangamela*, twenty miles from the town of *Arbela*, as the scene on which the decisive battle was to be fought. The result

was the same as that of Issus. A million of Persians were scattered by less than fifty thousand Greeks. Darius fled; and Alexander, then aged twenty-five, was lord of Western Asia—
331 B.C. 331 B.C.

The murder of Darius by Bessus, Satrap of Bactria; the assumption of the Persian dress and manners by Alexander; the foundation of other Alexandrias, still surviving in *Herat* and *Candahar*, followed, as the victor fought his way through Asia, past the Caspian, to the Jaxartes.

He soon invaded Northern India. Crossing the Indus at *Attock*, he pushed on to the Hydaspes (now the Jhelum), and forced his way over that stream to fight with Porus, whose elephants lined the opposite bank. The monstrous animals, being goaded to madness by the Greek horse, broke loose; the phalanx let them pass, and then pierced the Indian lines—326 B.C. The Macedonian King advanced to the Sutlej; but then turned back, and built a fleet to float down the Indus. The voyage took seven months, after which, leaving the boats to Nearchus, Alexander marched through the terrible desert of Gedrosia, and made Susa the head-quarters of his Persian luxury. There remains but little to tell. Bathing incautiously after a fit of hard drinking, he took a fever, which carried him off at Babylon in the very noon of his fame—323 B.C.

Agis of Sparta opposed Antipater, Regent of Macedonia, in vain. The Athenians, too, entered on the Lamian War (323–322 B.C.) to no purpose. A Macedonian garrison was forced upon Athens.

Partition of the Empire.—The generals of Alexander contended fiercely for the fragments into which his great empire fell. The treaty of Triparadisus made the following division, B.C. 322 :—

1. Seleucus	...	received	...	Babylonia.
2. Antigonus	...	"	...	Asia Minor.
3. Lysimachus	...	"	...	Thrace.
4. Antipater	...	"	...	Macedonia and Greece.
5. Ptolemy Lagos,	...	"	...	Egypt.

Asia Minor.—The kingdom of Asia Minor, soon after the

battle of *Ipsus* (301 B.C.), broke into several independent states—Bithynia, Pontus, Cappadocia, Pergamos, Galatia; but these were gradually absorbed into the spreading Empire of Rome.

Syria will be referred to under Roman history.

Later Events.—The later history of Macedon was very changeful. After the death of Antipater, Polysperchon and Cassander contended for the mastery. Demetrius Poliorcetes, son of Antigonus, who called himself King of Asia Minor, defeated the latter and relieved Athens more than once.

A great defeat at *Ipsus* in Phrygia, where Antigonus was 301
killed, checked the career of Demetrius for a while, but B.C.
he ultimately made himself King of Macedon. He was
supplanted by Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, who himself gave place
to Lysimachus; but Antigonus Gonatas, son of Demetrius, re-
covered the Macedonian crown, and founded a dynasty that lasted
for more than seventy years. Philip V. and Perseus were the
last kings of Macedon, which became a Roman province in 168 B.C.,
after the battle of *Pydna*.

Achæan League.—The later history of Greece is a confused
jumble of changing names, fruitless wars, intriguing and blood-
shed. But two names shine out clearly, *Aratus* and *Philopoemen*,
both connected with a patriotic confederacy called the *Achæan*
League. This was a democratic association, originating with
four towns of Achaia, but ultimately spreading over nearly all
the Peloponnese. Its main object was at first to withstand
the Macedonian power. Aratus, a native of Sicyon, expelled the
tyrant from his birth-place, and secured that city for the League.
Being made *Strategus* in 245 B.C., he was reappointed seventeen
times; and under him the Achæan League gained the adhesion
of Corinth and Megara. Sparta, however, opposed the League;
and Cleomenes took the field and fought victoriously, until
Aratus called in Macedonian aid. The battle of *Sellasia*
(222 B.C.) ended disastrously for the Spartans. It was at this
battle that Philopoemen, a young soldier of Megalopolis, first
won distinction. He, too, became *Strategus* of the League several
times; and in the exercise of his duty raised the walls of Sparta,

people to abandon the code of Lycurgus. Taken the rebel Messenians, he was killed by poison—

before that event the Romans had begun to interfere in the affairs of Greece. It is necessary now to trace the rise and progress of that mighty nation.

Chief Grecian Colonies.—Besides the Greek colonies in Asia Minor, there were others which played an important part in history. The southern part of Hesperia or Italy was studded with Greek cities, more or less thriving; and from this fact it took its name of *Magna Græcia*. The earliest founded of these was the Æolic colony of *Cumæ*, on the northern promontory of the Bay of Naples. *Tarentum*, founded by Spartans in 707 B.C., was at one time the most powerful city in *Magna Græcia*. But it was in Sicily that Greek colonization planted itself most firmly in this region. *Zancle* or *Messana*, *Naxos*, *Syracuse*, *Gela*, and *Agigentum* were among the most noted settlements in the island. *Syracuse* especially, founded by Corinthians in 734 B.C., bore the brunt of wars with the Carthaginians, who contended for the dominion of the island. Gelon, Hiero, and Dionysius the Elder were the leading Syracusan despots.

The colony of *Massalia* (Marseilles), founded near the mouth of the Rhone in 600 B.C., by the Ionian Phocæa, headed a cluster of satellite Greek cities on that part of the Mediterranean.

And on the African coast, some enterprising Spartans founded *Cyrene*, opposite the Morea. The kings of this region, which was called *Cyrenaica*, held their own stoutly against the attacks of the Egyptians, but became subject with Egypt for a time to Persia. The government of *Cyrenaica* afterwards became a democracy.

HISTORY OF ROME.

Rome Founded.—Before the foundation of Rome, a race called the Etruscans, of considerable progress in civilization, occupied the territory we call Tuscany. As we have already seen, the Greeks planted numerous colonies along the shores of

Southern Italy. Between these two powers of Etruria and Magna Græcia, on seven hills about fourteen miles from the mouth of the Tiber, a city arose, which was destined to sway the world in more ways than one. Its foundation is generally assigned to 753 a.c., and its reputed founder was Romulus. For about two centuries and a half Kings reigned in Rome; but the details of their history are largely mixed with legend.

The list of Kings is as follows:—

						B.C.
1. Romulus,	753-715
2. Numa Pompilius,	715-672
3. Tullus Hostilius,	672-640
4. Ancus Marcius,	640-616
5. Tarquin the Elder,	616-578
6. Servius Tullius,	578-534
7. Tarquin the Haughty,	534-509

Kings of Rome.—By making his city an asylum for all the vagabonds in the vicinity, *Romulus* filled it with inhabitants, who then stole wives from the Sabines. Under the rule of *Romulus* the citizens were organized into three tribes;—*Ramnes*, or Romans; *Tities*, or Sabines; *Luceres*, probably Etruscans. The reign of *Numa* was noted for institutions of religion; *Tullus*, the third king, warred with the Albans, whom he conquered and incorporated with Rome; *Ancus* devoted himself chiefly to works of power; *Tarquin the Elder*, who was an Etruscan stranger, secured the throne for himself, when left as guardian over the children of *Ancus*. He built the Great Sewer and the Great Circus. It was to *Servius Tullius* that the *plebeians*, a lower class, formed by multitudes of conquered people being drafted into the city during Alban and Latin wars, owed the recognition of their right to meet in public assembly for political discussion. The last king of Rome was *Tarquin the Haughty*, who gained the crown by the murder of *Servius*, his father-in-law. But he was inferior in wickedness to his wife *Tullia*, who drove her chariot over the body of her father, as it lay in the Wicked Street. A reign so begun could not end well. The tyranny of *Tarquin* made many foes in Rome; and the brutal conduct of his son *Sextus* towards a lady named *Lucretia*, who slew herself for

shame, roused a revolution, by which the hated family were expelled. Brutus and Collatinus, Lucretia's husband, were then appointed *Consuls*, for monarchy was overturned and the name of King abolished—509 B.C.

Efforts to Restore the Tarquins.—When the people of Tarquinii and Veii formed an army to restore the exiles, Brutus was slain in a duel with Aruns Tarquin. He had previously, as Consul, condemned his own sons to death for sharing in a conspiracy in favour of the expelled tyrant.

Lars Porsenna of Clusium, lord of the Etruscan cities, soon laid siege to Rome in behalf of Tarquin. Every reader of Macaulay's *Lays* knows how Horatius kept the bridge in the face of the whole Etruscan army. In spite of such a brave defence, and other heroic deeds, Porsenna reduced Rome; but the Tarquins were not restored.

The thirty Latin cities then united under a Dictator; an example followed by the citizens of Rome, who appointed Lartius to be their first Dictator*—499 B.C. The battle of *Lake Regillus* in Tusculum, fought two years later, destroyed all the hopes of restoration, long cherished by the Tarquins.

Tribunes of the Plebs.—The population of Rome was divided into two sections, severed at this time by a wide gulf. The *Patricians* were descended from the old Romans; the *Plebeians* were the newer importations of conquered people—not a mere mob of paupers, but chiefly yeomen or small farmers. Debt pressed sorely on the latter; and the rich drove the poor to madness by usury and the cruelties permitted by law to a creditor.

The matter came to a crisis at length. The Plebeians refused to take the field against the Volscians, and seceded to Mons

Sacer, two miles from Rome, where some of the wilder spirits talked of founding a new city—494 B.C. But the fable of the Belly and the Limbs, told by a knowing old

Patrician, induced them to listen to a compromise. Debtors were relieved; slaves for debt were set free; and, more

* A Dictator received supreme and irresponsible command for a limited time under the pressure of some emergency. He had not, like the Consuls, to render an account of his command.

important still, two magistrates, chosen from the Plebeians, and called *Tribunes of the Plebs*, were appointed. These afterwards became ten in number. They held office for a year, during which their persons were sacred; and they could nullify any decree of the Senate by the word *Veto*, I forbid it.

Patrician Heroes.—Of these Coriolanus was one. Having won this surname by valour at Corioli, he displayed great arrogance towards the Plebeians, especially when he insisted that they should sell their right to have Tribunes for a supply of corn in famine times. The storm this demand raised drove him from Rome. He found refuge at Antium, a Volscian town, and soon returned at the head of a Volscian army to besiege Rome. Every effort to turn him from his purpose proved vain, until he yielded to the tears of his wife and his mother. He was afterwards killed by the Volscians.

Cincinnatus was another Patrician hero. Taken from his little farm to head the Roman army as Dictator, he relieved the Consul, who was beset in a narrow valley by a host of Æquians, and then retired to his rustic home.

Decemvirs.—In 451 B.C. ten men (*Decemviri*) were chosen from the Patricians to arrange a code of laws. These enactments were graven on copper, and set up in the Forum. During the first year the Decemvirs acted well, and they were re-elected, as the work was not complete. After the second year they became oppressive. The murder of a brave old centurion named Dentatus, and the death of young Virginia, whom her father stabbed rather than let her fall into the hands of Appius Claudius the Decemvir, roused a storm of anger, which overthrew the tyranny of these magistrates.

The Gauls.—After the siege of Veii, which cost the Romans ten years, and fell in 396 B.C. before the prowess of Camillus, the Senones, a Gallic tribe, invaded Etruria and advanced towards Rome. Brennus was their leader. The Romans were defeated at the River Alia (390 B.C.), and the Gauls entered the city. But the Capitol held out for seven months, until the Gauls, tired of the siege, agreed to go on receipt of a thousand pounds of gold.

The Plebeian Struggle.—The struggle for political rights, upon which the Plebeians entered by the first secession to Mons Sacer, continued for a long time, but ended in their favour. An *Agrarian Law*, proposed in 486 B.C. by Spurius Cassius, was a point of contention, for it aimed at dividing the domain-land of the expelled kings among the Plebeians. The tyranny of the Decemvirs gained sympathy for the struggling sufferers. But the contest reached its height, when Licinius and Sextius, Tribunes of the Plebs, brought forward a series of Bills known as the *Licinian Rogations*. The most important provision of these was that one of the two Consuls should henceforth be a Plebeian. After a contest of ten years the Rogations passed into law—367 B.C.

Lucius Sextius—365 B.C.—was the first Plebeian Consul. One office after another opened to the victors—Dictatorship, Censorship, Prætorship, and finally, in 300 B.C., the sacred functions of Pontiff and Augur.

Samnite and Latin Wars.—When Capua in Campania, being threatened by the Samnites, implored the aid of Rome, the first Samnite War began. It lasted two years—343–341 B.C. After a war with the Latins, Rome engaged in a second and longer struggle with the Samnites—326–304 B.C.—during which a Roman army, having surrendered at the Caudine Forks, was forced to pass under the yoke. But the Romans soon retrieved their position. And in the third war the decisive battle of Sentinum (295 B.C.) crushed a great alliance of Samnites, Umbrians, and Gauls, who had united to overwhelm Rome.

Campaigns of Pyrrhus.—The Greek cities of Southern Italy watched these successes with jealous eyes. Tarentum soon became embroiled in a quarrel with Rome, and sought the aid of Pyrrhus, King of Epirus. This region, lying west of Thessaly and Macedonia, was the seat of the ancient Pelasgic religion; and its kings claimed descent from Achilles.

Pyrrhus, coming with 25,000 men, subjected the luxurious Tarentines to a rigorous discipline. At Heraclea—281 B.C.—Greek

and Roman met for the first time in war. The Romans fought stoutly, until what they conceived to be gigantic gray oxen came thundering down on them; and before these unexpected foes they turned and fled. Thus Pyrrhus owed his victory to his *elephants*. That the Roman spirit was not broken by this blow, may be judged from the reply made to Cincas, an eloquent orator in the service of Pyrrhus, "that the immediate departure of the King of Epirus from Italy was the only condition on which the Romans would listen to terms." Pyrrhus defeated the Romans at Asculum in the second campaign, and then passed into Sicily to make war with the Mamertines and the Carthaginians. His failure in the siege of Lilybæum led him to leave the island after three years. And his great defeat at *Beneventum*, where Curius Dentatus headed the victorious Romans, drove him from Italy—275 B.C.

The First Punic War.—Rome was now mistress of Italy. But on the opposite shore of the Mediterranean lay a great rival city, called Carthage, a colony, as we have seen, from Tyre; and with this she now came into collision. Sicily and the sea were the first arenas of this struggle. The expulsion by the Romans of a Carthaginian garrison from Messana commenced the First Punic War, which lasted twenty-three years (263–241 B.C.). The reduction of Agrigentum was the first great exploit of the Romans. In order to cope with the Carthaginians at sea, they built a fleet, taking a stranded ship as a model; and by grappling with the enemy's ships secured a naval victory at Mylæ. Another triumph by sea at Ecnomus opened the way to Africa, whither Regulus went in command of a Roman force. But he was defeated at Tunis and made prisoner—255 B.C. The war was then confined to Sicily, where the Carthaginians suffered a severe defeat at Paormna. But disasters at sea befel the Romans, who lost fleet after fleet, until a navy raised by public subscription took the sea, and by the victory of *Agyra* reduced the Carthaginians to seek a peace—241 B.C.

Second or Great Punic War.—Before this war broke out, the Romans were engaged in conquering Teuta, the warlike queen

rians. The Gauls in Northern Italy were also defeated in the battle of Telamon—225 B.C.

In Spain that the cause of the Second Punic War arose. A Carthaginian kingdom had been founded there by Hamilcar, father of the celebrated Hannibal. When Hannibal, aged twenty-nine, was elected to the command in Spain, he pushed the Carthaginian dominions up to the Ebro, and besieged the city of Saguntum, an ally of Rome. The city fell after eight months; and the Romans declared war.

Hannibal resolved upon a daring movement—a march from Spain to Italy. Turning the eastern point of the Pyrenees, he crossed the Rhone, marched up the valley of that river
218 to the island of the Allobroges, north of the Isere, as-
 n.c. cended that river to the valley of Chambery, and climbed over the Alps by the pass of the St. Bernard. The march took about four months, and cost him 33,000 men—218 B.C.

Once in Italy, he lost no time. A cavalry skirmish on the *Ticino*—a battle on the Trebia, near *Placentia*—left him master of Northern Italy. In spring he passed into the basin of the Arno and routed the Romans in a fog by “reedy *Trasimene*”—217 B.C. The citizens of Rome expected an immediate attack; but he turned in among the Apennines, from whose heights the cautious Fabius watched and harassed his movements. A disaster worse than any yet undergone awaited the Roman arms. On the bloody field of *Cannæ*, strewn with the golden rings of Roman knighthood, Hannibal won a signal victory—as *Miltiades* had won *Marathon*—by permitting his weak centre to be pierced, and then enclosing the exhausted assailants with his wings—216 B.C.

So far all things smiled on Hannibal's enterprise. He met his first check at Nola, where *Marcellus* repulsed him in a sally. A winter at Capua disorganized his army and weakened his soldiers. And the Carthaginians would send him little or no aid.

Several years of desultory warfare followed, during which the Romans gained ground, taking Capua and Tarentum from Hannibal, who was hemmed into the toe of the peninsula.

Meanwhile in Spain a young Roman soldier—Publius Scipio—was inflicting severe loss upon Carthage. Taking the Punie capital there, he reduced Spain to the condition of a Roman province—206 B.C. Hasdrubal, the brother of Hannibal, escaped from the peninsula, and entered Italy by the same route as his illustrious brother had followed. Intercepting him on the *Metaurus*, a Roman general defeated and slew him; and the first intimation Hannibal received of his brother's arrival in Italy was the sight of that brother's bloody head tossed in contempt into his camp—207 B.C.

Scipio then carried war into Africa. Forming a naval camp, he lay there for a winter. He then defeated the Carthaginians at the Great Plains so sorely that they called urgently to Hannibal to return. He came; and on the plain of *Zama* the final battle of the war was fought. In vain Hannibal reserved his Italian veterans, and at a critical moment launched 202 them against the Roman lines. The victory went against B.C. him; and Carthage gladly sued for peace—202 B.C. For this glorious termination of the war Scipio received the name *Africanus*.

Macedonian Wars.—When Philip V. of Macedon made a treaty with Hannibal, he put himself in opposition to Rome; and war speedily ensued. The first war (215–205 B.C.) was barren in great events. But in the second Flaminius completely broke the Macedonian power at *Cynoscephalæ* in Thessaly—197 B.C.; and in the following year there was a great public demonstration in the amphitheatre at Corinth, upon which occasion the Roman Consul proclaimed that *Greece was free*. Perseus, the successor of Philip, entered on the Third Macedonian War in 171 B.C. After some campaigns, which deluded Perseus with gleams of success, the battle of *Pydna* took place in 168 B.C. This triumph of the Roman arms overturned the Macedonian throne for ever.

Syrian Wars.—In 280 B.C. Seleucus Nicator founded a dynasty, under which Syria flourished and grew great. An uneventful period passed away, until, in 223 B.C., Antiochus III., or the Great, ascended the throne. A great object of this monarch's ambition

was the conquest of all Asia Minor; and in alliance with Philip of Macedon he engaged in operations hurtful to Rome. The reception of exiled Hannibal at Ephesus placed him in more open hostility; so that when the Ætolians, discontented with the Romans for preference shown towards the Achaean League, invited him into Greece, he was nothing loath to go. He seized Eubœa, but in the following year was defeated at Thermopylæ, and driven into Asia, whither the two Scipios followed him. He made a stand at *Magnesia* in Lydia; but was totally defeated there. The chief terms of his submission were the surrender of all his territory north of Taurus, and the giving up of Hannibal to the Romans. Hannibal, however, had time to escape to Bithynia, where he killed himself with poison.

Third Punic War.—Cato the Censor, a stern foe to the luxury that was creeping into fashion at Rome, as a result of intercourse with the East, excited a Third Punic War by ending all his speeches with the words, "Carthage must be destroyed." The humbled Carthaginians made several concessions; but, when Rome proposed to raze their city by the sea and send them to live inland, they prepared for war. The *Siege of Carthage* (149–146 B.C.) was the one event of this final struggle. The women gave their tresses to make bow-strings; the men poured out their blood in vain. Under the command of Scipio, the adopted son of the elder Africanus, the Romans gained entrance to the city; and at length reduced the Citadel. This success formed the Carthaginian territory into a Roman province, under the name of Libya.

In the same year—146 B.C.—the Roman Consul Mummius, having gained the battle of Leucopetra, committed Corinth to the flames.

Thus Rome became supreme on nearly every shore of the Mediterranean.

Spain and Sicily.—It took time and trouble finally to subdue Spain. Cato the Censor smote the people with an iron hand. Sempronius Gracchus made a treaty with them in 179 B.C. But under Viriathus they maintained warfare in Lusitania (Portugal),

while the Celtiberians of Castile collected their strength in Numidia, which defied the Romans, until Scipio Africanus the younger reduced it in 133 B.C. An insurrection of slaves in Sicily, who fixed their stronghold at Enna, also created much anxiety at Rome, until suppressed by Rupilius.

The Gracchi.—Class was once more arrayed against class in Rome. The *Optimates*, or new nobility, contended bitterly with the *Populares*, or masses of the people. Tiberius Gracchus, being elected Tribune, proposed an Agrarian Law, to limit the quantity of land held by individuals, and to divide the surplus land among the poor. Octavius pronounced the *veto* ; but Gracchus, too strong for him, secured a vote of the Tribes expelling Octavius from the tribuneship. But at the Capitol, having raised his hand to his head, the action was interpreted to mean that he sought a crown; and, a mob of Senators rushing out with clubs, he was beaten to death—133 B.C.

Ten years later, his brother Caius was made Tribune. He harped considerably on the death of Sempronius, but also proposed many laws for the benefit of the people. His arch-foe Opimius, being made Consul, excited the Patrician fury against him, and a conflict took place, in which the ex-Tribune was slain—121 B.C.

Jugurthine War.—Jugurtha having usurped the entire kingdom of Numidia, the Romans entered on a war with him. Metellus held the chief command; but his lieutenant Marius displaced him. The capture of Jugurtha, however, which ended the war, was due to a young officer of cavalry named Sulla. Here we find, in close connection, the names of two men, whose later contest for supremacy deluged Rome with blood. The Jugurthine war lasted six years—111–105 B.C.

Gallic and Servile Wars.—A great movement of Gallic tribes—the Teutones and the Cimbri—upon Northern Italy was baffled by the victory of Aix, won in 102 B.C. by Marius; and that on the Raudian Plain near Verella, won in the following year. A second Slave War, crushed by Aquilius, belongs to the same time.

Social or Marsic War.—When the Roman franchise was ro-

fused to the Italian Allies, the latter, among whom the foremost were the warlike Marsians, fixed on Corfinium as a rival capital, and took the field, at first with much success. The Julian Law, granting the franchise to some, allayed the hostility a little; but some of the allies held out, until Sulla brought the war to a close (90-88 B.C.).

Marius and Sulla.—A contest between Marius and Sulla for the command in the Mithridatic War caused the latter to lead his soldiers to Rome, whence Marius fled. After some perils on the Italian coast the old man found his way to Africa. Sulla meanwhile besieged and burned Athens. Taking advantage of intestine struggles, Marius, upon the invitation of an expelled Consul, returned to Italy, and entered Rome. For a week a dreadful massacre continued—87 B.C. Marius and Cinna became Consuls without election; and, a fortnight later, the former died.

Sulla, having enriched his soldiers with the spoils of Asia, conducted his army across Greece and landed at Brundisium. His chief opponents were Carbo and young Marius. The army of the former, leagued with the Samnites, was defeated by Sulla at the Colline Gate of Rome, and the fall of Præneste drove Marius to suicide. The blood of massacre then flowed a second time—in a yet greater stream. Lists of proscription were published every day; and the porch of Sulla's house was full of heads. Calling himself Dictator, Sulla then proceeded to reform the State after its ancient constitution. Of the changes he made, the Criminal Code was the most successful. Previous to his death (78 B.C.), he passed two years in luxurious ease at Puteoli.

Sertorian and other Wars.—The boldest stand for the Marian cause was made in Spain by Sertorius. Pompey opposed him; but with little success, until the brave Spaniard was murdered. A war, kindled by Spartacus a gladiator, who had escaped from Capua, was crushed by Crassus; and Pompey swept the Mediterranean clear of pirates, especially by a blow inflicted at Coracesium on the Cilician coast.

Mithridatic Wars.—A Second Mithridatic War took place (83-81 B.C.). The Third, arising from an interference of the

Pontic King with Bithynia, began in 74 B.C. Lucullus took Sinope; and Mithridates fled into Armenia. But Lucullus was supplanted by Pompey, who continued the Armenian War. Mithridates took poison in 63 B.C., previous to which Pompey made Syria a Roman province, and devoted three months to the siege of Jerusalem. This is a convenient place to take up the thread of Jewish history for a time.

Jewish History (536-37 B.C.).—The Edict of Cyrus brought a portion of the nation under Zerubbabel back to Palestine, where after some years a new Temple (the second) arose—515 B.C. From the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander the land was a part of the Persian Empire, its affairs being ruled by high-priests. A Jew named Mordecai was made prime minister at the Persian court of Xerxes, as related in the story of Esther; and in the time of Artaxerxes, two Jews—Ezra, a priest, and Nehemiah, cup-bearer to the King—distinguished themselves by reforming and organizing the Jewish people, and putting Jerusalem in a state of defence. The chief trouble of the restored nation came from Samaria, which was occupied with a mixed population of Babylonians and renegade Israelites, who set up a rival temple on Mount Gerizim. Alexander the Great visited Jerusalem, and, it is said, offered sacrifice in the Temple.

When Alexander's empire was torn to pieces by his generals, Ptolemy the son of Lagus took Palestine, which remained under the rule of Egypt for a century, enjoying a peaceful prosperity for a considerable time. It then became a subject of contention between Egypt and Syria, and fell into the power of the latter in 198 B.C., when Antiochus the Great defeated the Egyptians at Panium near the source of the Jordan.

The struggles of an Egyptian and a Syrian faction then convulsed the nation, which began to be affected too by influences from Greece. When Antiochus IV. took Jerusalem by storm, he offered up swine on the altar, in order to destroy the Jewish veneration for their religious rites. This and other oppressions aroused the Jews to a struggle for independence.

The publication of an edict commanding uniformity of worship

after the Syrian fashion excited a priest named **Mattathias**, then dwelling at Modin, to revolt. He slew an officer of Antiochus and pulled down the heathen altar. The Jews rallied round him, and the work of reformation spread. But Mattathias, old and feeble, died in 167 B.C., leaving the war to his five sons.

The third of these was the famous **Judas Maccabæus**,* from whose surname the whole family received the name of *Maccabees*. They were also called the *Asmonæan* line, from Chasman an ancestor. In a succession of victories—at Bethoron, Emmaus, and Bethsura—Judas routed the Syrian armies, and won an entrance into Jerusalem. There he restored the service of the Temple. When the successor of Antiochus IV. marched to relieve the Syrian garrison of Mount Zion, Eleazar, one of the Maccabees, crept under an elephant and stabbed it. The deed cost him his life, but taught the Jews, previously terrified by the monsters, that elephants were not invincible. The victory of Adasa—161 B.C.—won over the Syrians by Judas, all but secured the independence of the insurgents. The Maccabee then sought alliance with Rome, which the Senate granted. But at this critical time, in face of a Syrian army, the *Asidæans*, or adherents of the Law, deserted the standard of Judas, and left him to die at Eleasa with 800 followers.

Jonathan, the youngest brother, continued the struggle for independence, which was formally acknowledged by Syria in 143 B.C. This was the first year of Simon's rule. The peace and prosperity conferred on the land by this last of the Maccabæan brothers was ill repaid by his murder at a banquet at Jericho in 135 B.C.

John Hyrcanus relieved Judæa from the Syrian yoke, which had been almost replaced—128 B.C.; and he succeeded too in conquering Samaria and Idumæa. From the tumults of this time sprang the Pharisees and Sadducees, sects whose names are familiar to us in the Gospels.

The Asmonæans then exchanged the mitre for the crown, the bloody Aristobulus being the first king—106 B.C.

* *Maccabæus* probably means a hammer. Compare the name of Charlemagne Martel.

When Pompey invaded Asia, there was a contest for the throne of Judæa between two brothers, Aristobulus II. and Hyrcanus, the latter of whom was guided by the counsels of a wily Idumæan noble, named Antipater. The adherents of Aristobulus defied the Roman battering-engines in Jerusalem for three months—63 B.C.; but Pompey was finally victorious.

In order to preserve the connection, it may be well here to glance forward a few years. Out of the tumults of the time Antipater shaped a way for himself, and became Procurator of Judæa. His second son, Herod, marrying Mariamne an Asmonæan princess, set up as representative of that race. His convivial qualities won the favour of Antony, and, when he fled to Rome, that of Octavian too. With Roman aid Herod laid siege to Jerusalem, which fell in 37 B.C. Thus ended the Asmonæan rule in Judæa.

Roman History Resumed.—Catiline's Plot. When the great orator Cicero was Consul at Rome, Catiline, a needy Patrician, formed a conspiracy, of which the murder of the Consul and the burning of Rome were portions. A woman betrayed the plot to Cicero; and Catiline fled from Rome. The accomplices of Catiline, who remained, tried to tamper with the discontented envoys of the Allobroges, then in Rome; but these Gauls also gave information—63 B.C. Nothing then remained for Catiline but to die, sword in hand, which he did at Pistoreia.

The First Triumvirate.—Pompey, Crassus, and Julius Cæsar formed the First Triumvirate in 59 B.C. Cato the Stoic was their principal opponent; but he was sent as Prætor to Cyprus; while Cicero, through the intrigues of Clodius, was exiled from Rome.

Campaigns of Cæsar in Gaul.—In 58 B.C. Cæsar began the successful Gallic Wars, described in his *Commentaries*. Carrying fire and sword through Helvetia, Gaul, and Germany, he reached the narrow sea, beyond which lay Britain. And on this island he made two attacks, neither more than temporarily successful. While he was winning such laurels, the death of his daughter Julia, Pompey's wife, and the murder of Crassus in Parthia,

whither he had gone to lay hands on the treasures of Orodes, broke up the Triumvirate; and events rapidly brought Cæsar and Pompey into hostility.

Pompey's demand that some of Cæsar's legions should be given up, caused Cæsar, who had come to Ravenna, to cross the Rubicon, and begin a civil war in 49 B.C.

Corfinium soon fell; and the departure of Pompey into Greeco left Cæsar master of Italy. Instead of following Pompey, Cæsar went to Spain, which he subdued. But the decisive battle was only postponed. It took place at *Pharsalia* in Thessaly—48 B.C. The veterans of Cæsar proved too strong for the new levies of Pompey, who was forced to seek a refuge in Egypt. There he was murdered, as he was preparing to step ashore.

When Cæsar reached Egypt, he was fascinated by Cleopatra, who afterwards became Queen; but, although he delayed a long time there, he found time also to humble Pharnaces, son of Mithridates, in the battle of Zela in Syria. It was after this battle that he wrote his famous despatch, couched in the words, —*Veni : vidi : vici*.

After Cæsar returned to Europe, he suppressed a dangerous mutiny at Capua, and then crossed to Africa, where he scattered the remnant of Pompey's party at *Thapsus*—46 B.C. Cato the Stoic committed suicide at Utica in consequence of this defeat.

Cæsar was then created Dictator for ten years. He went to Spain, defeated the sons of Pompey at *Munda*, and came back to Rome to accomplish and meditate on great reforms. The people suspected him of aiming at a crown, and Antony tried their temper by offering him a diadem at the feast of Pan.

Discontent grew into conspiracy, of which the chief
 44 movers were Brutus and Cassius. And on the Ides
 B.C. (i.e., 15th) of March, 44 B.C., Julius Cæsar sank bleeding
 with mortal wounds at the foot of Pompey's statue.

The Second Triumvirate.—Antony and Octavius now rose to the head of affairs at Rome. Together with Lepidus, they arranged a coalition called the *Second Triumvirate*. The first care of the Triumvirs was to slay their foes at Rome. Cicero.

who was murdered near his villa at Formiæ, was the noblest victim of this proscription. Then followed the military operations in Greece, where the battle of *Philippi* ruined for ever the cause of Brutus and Cassius, who killed themselves—42 B.C.

The Roman world was then divided between Antony and Octavian. The former, whose portion was the East, met Cleopatra at Tarsus, and accompanied her to Alexandria. The Parthians were then in arms; and Sextus Pompey had established himself as a pirate-chief in Sicily. Agrippa reduced Pompey, and Ventidius defeated the Parthians. Meanwhile Antony sank deeper in indolent luxury, while Octavian was fighting in the West. A quarrel arose between them; and Octavian, armed with a decree of the Senate, entered upon a war with Cleopatra. The Queen's flight in the naval battle of *Actium*, fought off the Adriatic Gulf, decided the victory in favour of Octavian. The defeated pair sailed to Egypt, where Antony stabbed himself, and Cleopatra, according to the common story, killed herself by letting an asp bite her—30 B.C.

Reign of Augustus.—Rome now changed from a Republic to an Empire. In 27 B.C. Octavian, saluted with the titles of Augustus and Imperator, began a reign distinguished by works of peace and literary splendour. 27
Horace, B.C.
Virgil, Livy, and Ovid were among the great names that added lustre to the time. Augustus instituted the Prætorian Guard, a body of soldiers which afterwards influenced the destinies of the Empire considerably.

The few wars of the reign were on the remote borders of the Empire—in Spain, Parthia, and Germany. In the last-named country a great disaster befel the Roman arms in 9 A.D., when the Governor Varus was induced by Hermann (Arminius), chief of the Cherusci, to undertake an expedition, which led him into an ambuscade. For three days the Romans were mercilessly beset in the dark woods, till scarce a man survived. Augustus died at Nola—14 A.D.

Birth of Jesus Christ.—Herod the Great signalized his accession to the throne of Judæa, when the favour of Antony trans-

formed him from a Tetrarch to a King, by a massacre of his enemies. Under his tyranny Jerusalem wore the aspect of a Roman city, with a theatre and gladiatorial games. He changed the Temple of Zerubbabel, which had grown ruinous through time and war, into a magnificent structure of white marble and gold, which gleamed on the summit of Moriah like a crest of snow. He put to death some of his sons for plotting against his life; and lived a life of constant terror. It was this which induced him as he lay on his death-bed, a mass of ulcers, to issue the order which led to what we call "The Massacre of Innocents at Bethlehem." For in that little city of David there

3 was born in the year 3 B.C. a child Jesus, whom the wise
B.C. men of the East hailed as the King of the Jews, whom
we revere and love as the Saviour of Mankind—God
made manifest in the flesh. Bethlehem was so small a place, that the number of children under two years could scarcely have been more than twelve.

Reign of Tiberius.—The twenty-three years of this reign contain some of the darkest pages in Roman history. The jealousy of Tiberius was excited by the victorious career of his nephew and adopted son, *Germanicus*. The legions in Germany proposed to raise this gallant soldier to the purple; but he resisted the temptation. Nevertheless Tiberius plotted his downfall. Recalled from Germany, he was sent to the East, where he was poisoned near Antioch by Piso, a creature of Tiberius. The Emperor afterwards yielded to the persuasions of *Sejanus*, who undertook the government, while Tiberius lived secluded on the island of Capræ. Tiberius did little state-work in his retreat but sign death-warrants: Sejanus, whose statues surpassed those of the Emperor in number, excelled his master in bloodshed and rapacity. But the Senate received a letter, as Sejanus thought, appointing him Tribune, but in reality charging him with high treason. He was killed that very day. Macro then took the post of favourite; and with the aid of Caius—afterwards Caligula—son of the good Germanicus, smothered the Emperor with pillows—37 A.D.

The Herods.—Before Herod the Great died in b.c. 3, he made a will, leaving Judæa to Archelaus, and making another son, Herod Antipas, Tetrarch of Galilee, while the northern districts beyond Jordan were left to Philip. The Roman Emperor Augustus sanctioned this will. But in 7 A.D. Augustus banished the cruel Archelaus to Gaul; and Judæa, as a portion of Syria, was placed under a Roman Procurator.

Herod Antipas, Tetrarch of Galilee, was the Herod who figured in the Gospels as “that fox”—the slayer of John the Baptist—and the sharer with Pilate in the condemnation of the Saviour. Caligula banished him to Gaul in 39 A.D.

Agrippa, a friend of Caligula, received the re-united realm of Herod the Great in 41 A.D., from Claudius, whom afterwards he supported. He it was, styled *Herod-Agrippa I.*, who persecuted the infant Church of Christ, slaying James the brother of John: and he was the impious king, upon whom, as he sat, clad in a silver dress, in the blazing sunlight amid the shouts of flatterers, the judgment of God fell suddenly, so that “he was eaten of worms”—44 A.D.

His son *Herod-Agrippa II.* held a sort of kingship at Jerusalem under the patronage of Nero. We know him as the “King Agrippa” before whom the case of St. Paul was heard.

The Crucifixion and Early Church.—In the year 30 A.D., during the reign of Tiberius, Jesus Christ, “the Son of God,” was crucified on Calvary, condemned first by the Sanhedrim—a great Jewish Council of seventy-one members—and then by Pontius Pilate, a Roman Procurator, under whose tyranny Judæa was groaning. The descent of the Holy Ghost on the day of Pentecost endowed the infant Church of Christ with the gift of tongues. It was soon to be baptized in the fires of persecution. At Antioch in Syria, where Barnabas and Saul taught the faith, the disciples were first called Christians. And then began those journeys, by which St. Paul carried the gospel through Asia Minor and Greece, until, in God’s providence, he was himself carried a prisoner to Rome, to die there in the reign of Nero.

Reign of Claudius.—Caligula, having reigned for four years of

the wildest folly, was succeeded by his uncle Claudius. Under the sceptre of this Emperor the Romans gained a footing in Britain, a spot distant from the heart of the empire, but destined one day to be itself a centre of civilization. The British hero of this war was Caractacus, chief of the Silures, who maintained a brave struggle against the Romans, until he was defeated in Wales and betrayed. His demeanour during the triumph at Rome won his pardon from Claudius. When a poisoned feather, applied to his throat, put an end to the life of Claudius, Nero assumed the purple of the Cæsars.

Reign of Nero.—This man—last of the five Cæsars who were really of the Julian line—was of accomplished mind and delicate taste. The lapse of years developed in him a character of the worst kind. The murder of his mother and his wife were preliminary trifles in his career of guilt. His name has become proverbial for cruel tyranny. To his reign belongs the first great persecution of the Christians, who were maliciously accused of having set Rome on fire—a disaster more probably due to a wicked freak of Nero himself. In 64 A.D. the arena swam with Christian blood, under the teeth of tigers or the steel of gladiators: and martyrs, clad in pitched sackcloth, blazed as torches to illumine the chariot-course of Nero. A rebellion of the Prætorian Guards under Galba drove this tyrant to get himself killed—68 A.D.

The Jews.—When Gessius Florus became Procurator, the Jews were ground under such intolerable oppression that they revolted against Rome in 66 A.D. The Roman soldiers and the Zealots came into fierce collision; and the latter under Eleazar worsted their opponents. Then the Holy Land was filled with massacre. Cestius Gallus, Governor of Syria, laid siege to Jerusalem; but was driven northward in headlong flight. Nero entrusted the Jewish War to Vespasian, under whom his son Titus held a command. The Jews were divided into a Moderate party and the Zealots, who would brook no subjection to Rome on any terms. Among the former a leading man was a priest, *Josephus*, whose skill in languages fitted him to be the historian

of the war. This man, defeated by Vespasian at Jotapata, hid in a cave until he made terms with his conqueror, to whose train he attached himself as a mediator and interpreter. Ptolemais or Acra was the point at which Vespasian concentrated his forces, while preparing for a great blow, which should crush the Jews for ever. Before long he was called to the purple by the soldiers (69 A.D.); and the task of quelling the Jews devolved on Titus. Then began the most terrible siege earth has ever seen. Gathering round Jerusalem in April, 70 A.D., the Roman legions began to rain rocks and javelins from their siege-engines on the place. All the efforts of the garrison, which was torn with intestine factions, could avail nothing. On the fifteenth day the first wall yielded. Famine soon began its tortures. The Romans stormed the Tower of Antonia; and in August fire was set to the Temple, whose fall was echoed by a wail from the despairing Jews, as they gazed on the conflagration. The siege had lasted one hundred and thirty-four days.

Titus and his Successors.—During the reign of Vespasian, Agricola, who made more impression upon the ancient Britons than any other Roman soldier, began the career of victory of which we read in Tacitus. His campaigns were seven; and in 84 A.D. he fought the battle of the *Grampians*, in which Galgacus was defeated. Upon the death of Titus (79–81 A.D.), Domitian, a persecutor of the Christians, became Emperor; and his murder in 96 A.D. placed Nerva on the throne. But his reign, a time of economy and peace, presents no striking events.

Reign of Trajan.—The Spanish soldier Trajan, who had won renown in German wars, and had endeared himself to the legions by mixing familiarly among them and sharing their toils, was made Emperor in 98 A.D. His first movement was upon Dacia, where beyond the Danube the barbarians were already threatening Rome. Building a bridge over the great river, Trajan followed Decabalus into the heart of his territory, inflicted a signal defeat on him, and made Dacia a Roman province. A persecution of the Christians in Bithynia and Pontus occurred during this reign. Trajan afterwards undertook a war in the East, where

he reduced Armenia, Parthia, and Persia, following for a time the track of conquering Alexander. The reduction of Ctesiphon beyond the Tigris was one of his exploits. He died on his way home at Selinus in Cilicia—117 A.D.

Hadrian, who succeeded Trajan, spent a great part of his reign in travelling through the Roman Empire, visiting its extreme bounds—Britain, Parthia, Africa. He spent six years at Athens, and some time at Alexandria, gratifying his philosophic tastes. Among the works of his useful reign were the establishment of the *Athenæum*, as the germ of a Roman university, and the publication of *Edictum Perpetuum*, a collection of edicts spoken by magistrates and emperors. He died of dropsy in 138 A.D. While in Britain he left a memorial of his name in a wall, built from the Solway to the Tyne.

The Three Antonines.—The reign of the first Antonine, who was surnamed *Pius*, presents a time of unruffled peace, though the noise of mustering barbarians was to be heard on the eastern and northern frontiers of the Empire. The second of the Antonines was *Marcus Aurelius* the Philosopher—so called from his Stoic opinions. A war in Parthia crowned the Roman arms with success, which was due chiefly to the prowess of the officers of Verus. An avenging plague came back with the army, and swept Italy with fatal effect, in spite of all that men like Galen could do. A war with a coalition of northern tribes, of whom the Quadi and Marcomanni were most prominent, called Aurelius to the field. While the final contest with the Quadi was going on in 174 A.D., a sudden burst of rain and thunder, in answer, says the story, to the prayers of a Christian legion, refreshed the Romans but distressed their foes. Before his death in 180 A.D. Aurelius had associated his worthless son *Commodus* with him in the Empire. Two persecutions of the Christian Church disgraced this reign: the one at Smyrna, when Polycarp suffered martyrdom—the other in the heart of Gaul, at Lyons and Vienne. Commodus, priding himself on his enormous strength, wore a lion's skin in imitation of Hercules, and fought with the gladiators in the arena. His useless and degraded reign was

closed by assassination. His mistress Marcia, seeing a cup of poison fail to kill him, called in a wrestler, who succeeded in strangling this last of the Antonines—192 A.D.

After the Empire was held for a year by Pertinax, who had risen from the humble grade of a charcoal-burner, it was sold by auction by the Prætorians to Didius Julianus—193 A.D.

Severus came from Germany to expel this stupid man, who was soon beheaded. But two rivals contested the purple with Severus. The defeat of Niger at Issus in Syria, and Albinus at Lyons in Gaul, left him victor. In 208 A.D. he went to Britain with his sons Caracalla and Geta; and penetrated through the Caledonian forests to the Moray Frith. He died at York in 211 A.D.

The next sixty years saw sixteen Emperors of Rome. Of these, the effeminate and tyrannical Elagabalus was worst: Alexander Severus was the best. Through all the confusion of generals proclaimed and emperors killed, signs of weakness were growing visible in the Roman state. Tribes of ominous name—Goths, Franks, Alemanni—were bursting through the northern frontiers of the Empire.

Aurelian, a peasant's son, proclaimed by the legions on the Danube, became Emperor in 270 A.D. Under him Rome shone with a revived lustre. He pacified the Goths and broke the power of the Alemanni in Northern Italy. But his greatest exploit was the subjugation of Zenobia, Queen of Palmyra. This princess, whose beauty was equal to her courage, was versed in many tongues, and skilled in the chase of bear and lion. With her aid her husband Odenathus had repelled the Persians and the Goths. Now, left a widow by his murder, she measured her strength with that of the Emperor of the West. But the strife was unequal. This daughter of the Ptolemys, defeated at Antioch and Emesa, retreated to Palmyra, whose walls rose amid a girdling tract of scorching sand. Hither came Aurelian to besiege the city. But all her ballists and engines that flung fire from the walls were unavailing. Palmyra fell; and the dromedary, on which she sought flight, was outstripped by a band of Roman

horse. Among those who died was Longinus, the Greek critic, who had been her prime minister—273 A.D. Zenobia, in chains of gold, adorned Aurelian's triumph at Rome.

Aurelian was murdered by conspirators near the Bosphorus. Diocletian reigned for twenty-one years (284–305 A.D.). Not content with dividing the Empire with Maximian, he took Galerius as an assistant for himself, and enjoined his colleague to take Constantius Chlorus. During his reign Britain was for a time lost to Rome, when Carausius, admiral of the Roman fleet in those seas, declared his independence, and maintained it for seven years. In 303 A.D. the fiercest of all the persecutions that strengthened and spread early Christianity broke out in Nicomedia, a city of Bithynia, selected by Diocletian as his capital.

An edict appeared condemning Christian worship, and
303 degrading all who followed Christ. For eight years
 A.D. every mode of torture was put in force against the
 unhappy people; nor did the flames die, till coming
 death terrified Galerius into withdrawing the edict of persecution.

The chief Christian persecutions were:—

						A. D.
1. Under Nero at Rome,	64
2. Under Domitian,	95
3. Under Trajan in Bithynia,	110
4. Under Marcus Aurelius at Smyrna,	167
5. Under Aurelius in Gaul,	177
6. Under Severus in Africa,	202
7. Under Decius Trajan,	249
8. Under Valerian,	253
9. Under Diocletian,	303

In 305 A.D. Diocletian abdicated the purple, obliging Maximian to do the same. Then came a struggle of nearly twenty years, during which, at one time, six claimants contended for the empire. Of these, Constantine, son of Constantius Chlorus, proved the most successful, defeating Maxentius at the Red Rocks near Rome, and Licinius in Thrace. In 324 A.D. this man, who has been dignified with the title of Great, ruled alone over the Roman world. His reign of thirteen years (324–337 A.D.) was

signalised by the erection of a new capital, where Byzantium stood by the Bosphorus. On the day of dedication in 330 A.D. the name of New Rome was given to the city: 330 but this was soon exchanged for Constantinople (*Stamboul*). There is a tendency to call Constantine the first *Christian* Emperor of Rome; but he gave little evidence that his profession of the Christian faith was sincere.

The reign of Julian (361–363 A.D.) is notable for his unavailing efforts to overturn Christianity and restore the worship of the old Roman idols. It was a complete failure; though he applied to the task all the philosophy that the works of Plato could teach him. His name—Julian the Apostate—was bestowed owing to his public renunciation of Christianity, while he was governor of Gaul.

While Valens and Valentinian reigned, the Roman Empire was finally divided into East and West—364 A.D. The fall of the latter half closes the record of Ancient History.

It was a fatal day for Rome when Valens permitted a million of Goths, pressed hard by the Huns, to settle in 376 A.D. south of the Danube, which had hitherto been the great barrier of the Roman Empire on the north. In two years he was engaged in war with them, and was soon slain near Adrianople. And in exactly a century after this blunder Rome fell.

Theodosius, becoming Emperor in 379 A.D., fixed his camp at Thessalonica, whence he assailed and repelled the Goths. But his death in 395 A.D. left two feeble sons, Arcadius and Honorius, to face a task too strong for them. Honorius abandoned Rome and hid himself among the swamps and pine-trees of Ravenna, when he heard that a great chieftain of the Goths, named Alaric, who had wrested from Arcadius the sway over Illyricum, was coming into Italy. There was indeed a Roman general, Stilicho, able to withstand the invader: but Honorius killed him; and the Goths swept round Rome, clamouring for the destruction of the ancient city. In 410 A.D. the capital of the Caesars was for a week a prey to the ruthless barbarians. Genseric, at the head of the Vandals, overran Africa; and a worse

than either Alaric or Genseric appeared in the person of Attila the Hun, who invaded Gaul in 451 A.D. The decisive battle of *Chalons*, won by Aëtius and Theodoric, checked his career for a time; but he turned into Italy and menaced Rome, until the prayers or the offerings of Bishop Leo induced him to spare the city.

The next miserable event in the story of Rome is the sack of the city in 455 A.D. by the Vandals and Moors. Leo tried to soften the barbarous heart again; but failed this second time. The glories of art were strewn in shapeless pieces through the streets. In the later days of Rome, Count Ricimer, son of a Suevian chief, made and unmade monarchs as he pleased; and in 472 A.D., a month or so before he died, he gratified his instincts by plundering Rome. Romulus Augustulus, whose name might have kindled some spark of the ancient fire in the breast of him

who bore it, was the last of the Roman Emperors. Odoacer, chief of the Heruli, a Gothic tribe, was proclaimed King of Italy in 476 A.D., when Augustulus was pensioned off, and went to live at Misenum. Thus ended Ancient History.

Eastern History.—The kingdom of *Syria*, even before the time of Antiochus the Great, was beginning to break asunder. Arsaces declared himself independent in Parthia in 256 B.C.; and one of his successors, Mithridates I., conquered Asia between the Euphrates and the Indus. The Mithridatic Wars of Rome have been already mentioned. It was in Parthia, fighting against Orodes, that Crassus was slain; and there was a grim humour in the victor's rebuke of avarice by pouring melted gold into the mouth of the dead Roman. The Parthian cavalry were difficult to subdue, owing to their method of shooting arrows backward as they fled. Phraates IV. defeated Antony in 35 B.C.: and later kings came in collision with Nero and with Trajan, by the latter of whom Parthia was reduced.

In 226 A.D. a new *Persian* Empire was established on the overthrown Parthian Kingdom by Artaxerxes, son of Sassan; from whom a dynasty, reigning more than four centuries (226–651 A.D.), was called the *Sassanides*. The second of these monarchs—Sapor I.—took prisoner the Roman Emperor Valerian; but was

subdued in turn by Aurelian. Another—Sapor II.—was successful against Constantine, and extended his conquests to India.

Armenia was broke off from Syria in two parts—Major and Minor. Tigranes, ruling Armenia Major, joined Mithridates against the Romans—80 B.C. Dejotarus was raised by Pompey in 64 B.C. to the throne of Armenia Minor, which afterwards was probably joined to Major. Arminia became a Roman province in 114 A.D.: and was conquered by Persia in 412 A.D.

CHIEF DATES OF ANCIENT HISTORY.

	B.C.
The Deluge (Usber),	2340
Egypt invaded by the Shepherd Kings,	2080
Call of Abraham,	1921
Cushites overrun by Arabs,	1513
Exodus of Israelites from Egypt (Usber),	1491
Period of Hebrew Judges begins,	1426
Namoun II. (Sesostris) reigns in Egypt,	1327-1266
Fall of Troy,	1184
Achæan migration in Greece,	1124
Berian migration,	1104
Death of Codrus at Athens,	1063
David King of all Israel,	1043
Reign of Solomon,	1015-975
Foundation of the Jewish Temple,	1012
Division of the kingdom into Israel and Judah,	975
Probable foundation of Carthage,	884
Legislation of Lycurgus,	878
Reported foundation of Rome,	753
Era of Nabonassar,	747
First Macedonian War,	743-23
Captivity of Ten Tribes—End of Israel as a kingdom,	721
Reign of Sennacherib in Assyria,	702-680
Reign of Psammetichus in Egypt,	604-611
Destruction of Nineveh by Cyaxares,	625
Reign of Nebuchadnezzar at Babylon,	604-561

SIXTH CENTURY, B.C.

Solon arrives at Athens,	594
Kingdom of Judah overthrown,	586
Revolutions of Peisistratus at Athens,	560
Cyrus founds the Persian Empire,	558
Reign of Croesus in Lydia,	568-554
Cyrus takes Babylon,	553

	B.C.
Restoration of Jews by Cyrus,	536
Death of Cyrus,	529
Pisistratids expelled from Athens,	510
Tarquins expelled from Rome,	509

FIFTH CENTURY, B.C.

First secession of Roman Plebs,	494
First Persian invasion of Greece under Darius I.,	492
Battle of Marathon,	490
Invasion of Greece by Xerxes,	480
Battles of Thermopylæ and Salamis,	—
Twelve Tables at Rome,	450
Athens under Pericles,	445-29
Peloponnesian War,	432-04
Battle of Delium,	424
Peace of Nicias,	421
Siege of Syracuse,	415-13
Battle of Cunaxa,	400

FOURTH CENTURY, B.C.

Death of Socrates,	399
Sack of Rome by the Gauls,	390
Theban War,	342-62
Licinian Rogations passed at Rome,	367
Reign of Philip of Macedon,	359-36
Reign of Alexander the Great,	335-23
Battle of Arbela,	331
Surrender of Romans at Caudine Forks,	321
Battle of Ipsus—Third partition of the Macedonian Empire,	301

THIRD CENTURY, B.C.

Defeat of the Samnites at Sentinum,	295
Pyrrhus defeated at Beneventum,	275
First Punic War,	263-41
Aratus head of the Achæan League,	245
Siege of Saguntum,	219
Second Punic War,	219-02
Battle of Cannæ,	216
Battle of Zama,	202

SECOND CENTURY, B.C.

Philopœmen abolishes the laws of Lycurgus,	183
Cato Censor at Rome,	184
Battle of Pydna overthrows Macedonian Monarchy,	168
Fall of Carthage and of Corinth,	146
Time of the Gracchi,	133-121
Marius made Consul,	107

FIRST CENTURY, B.C.

	B.C.
Marian massacre at Rome,	87
Persecutions of Sulla,	82
Conspiracy of Catiline,	63
First Triumvirate,	59
Julius Cæsar in Gaul,	53
His invasion of Britain,	55
He crosses the Rubicon,	49
Battle of Pharsalia,	48
Murder of Cæsar,	44
Second Triumvirate,	43
Battle of Philippi,	42
Battle of Actium,	31
Assassination of Augustus,	27
Birth of Jesus Christ,	3

THE CHRISTIAN ERA.

FIRST CENTURY, A.D.

	A.D.
Defeat of Varus in Germany,	9
Death of Augustus,	14
Preterian Guards quartered at Rome,	23
The Crucifixion,	30
Claudius invades Britain,	43
Nero persecutes the Christians,	64
Siege and destruction of Jerusalem,	70
Agrippa in Britain,	75-84
Reign of Trajan,	98-117

SECOND CENTURY, A.D.

Trajan conquers Dacia,	101
Mediterranean Perpetuum published by Hadrian,	131
Jerusalem restored as Ælia Capitolina,	137
The Empire sold by auction,	193

THIRD CENTURY, A.D.

Severus invades Britain,	208
Emperor of Persia takes Antioch,	261
Palmyra taken by Aurelian,	273
Division of the Roman Empire under Diocletian,	286
Fourfold division of the Empire,	292

FOURTH CENTURY, A.D.

Christians persecuted by Diocletian,	303
Reign of Constantine,	324-337

Constantinople made Capital of the East,	A. D.	330
Valens and Valentinian divide the Empire,		364
Goths allowed to settle in Thrace,		376
Paganism abolished by law,		394

FIFTH CENTURY, A.D.

Alaric the Goth sacks Rome,	410
Romans abandon Britain,	—
Carthage seized by the Vandals,	430
Teutonic invasions of Britain begin,	440
Battle of Chalons,	451
Pillage of Rome by the Vandals,	455
Fall of Rome before Odoacer—End of Ancient History,	476

THE MIDDLE AGES.

The history of the Middle Ages extends from the Fall of Rome in 476 A.D. to the Fall of Constantinople in 1453 A.D.—a period of very nearly one thousand years. Of these ten centuries the first six have been called the Dark Ages, from the ignorance and barbarism which overspread the world, submerging almost all the traces of ancient civilization.

The Middle Ages may for convenience be divided into three portions :—

- I. From 476 to 814—the Death of Charlemagne.
 - II. From 814 to 1291—the End of the Crusades.
 - III. From 1291 to 1453—the Fall of Constantinople.
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FIRST PERIOD OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

FROM 476 A.D. TO 814 A.D.

The leading events of this Period were the conquests of Justinian's reign; the growth of Mohammedanism; the foundation of Charlemagne's empire; the establishment of a Teutonic kingdom in England; and the origin of the Papal Power.

THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE (476-867 A.D.).

Religious Strife.—The downfall of Rome left Constantinople mistress of the world. Zeno was then Emperor of the East (474-491 A.D.). Previous to his time a great controversy regarding the nature of the Saviour had been convulsing the Eastern

Church, in spite of several General Councils called to decide upon the questions in dispute. The publication by Zeno of an Edict of union called *Henoticon* availed little to calm the storm. The rival factions—the orthodox wearing *blue*, their opponents *green*—often met in deadly conflict, strewing the streets with dead.

The Persians and the Huns were the chief foes of the Byzantine Empire at this time.

Justinian (527–565 A.D.).—After Anastasius and the peasant-born Justin had reigned, a nephew of the latter attained the crown. He was called Justinian—a name connected honourably with the great task of reducing the chaotic Roman laws into a simple and orderly system. Justinian was fortunate in possessing a general named Belisarius of famous military genius. Having in 533 A.D. conquered Gelimer the Vandal King, and taken from Carthage the vessels of the Jewish temple, this great soldier crossed the sea, and overran Southern Italy, until he was master of Rome. The Ostrogoths, who then held Italy, mustered to besiege the daring victor in Rome; but he repulsed them, took Ravenna, and was thus master of Italy. In later years he inflicted signal defeats upon Nushirvan, a distinguished monarch of the race called Sassanides, who held the Persian throne from 226 to 651 A.D. In spite of these glorious services, he was recalled for uttering some rash words against the Empress, and was disgraced. This was partly due to the intrigues of his rival Narses. His campaigns in Italy against Totilas the Goth, and his repulse of the wild Bulgarians, who crossed the frozen Danube to menace Constantinople, were his later achievements. After this, worse disgraces were inflicted on him. Narses, having in 553 overthrown the Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy, became the first Exarch of Ravenna.

Justinian's system of law, compiled with aid from Tribonian, consisted of—1. *The Code, an Epitome*; 2. *The Institutes, or Elements*; 3. *The Digest, or Pandect*, containing the Roman jurisprudence; 4. *The Novels*, or Justinian's new laws.

The religious riots and massacres still continued; one in 532

A.D. called *Nika*, was specially notable. Justinian died in 565 A.D.

Decline of Power.—Under Justin II., successor of Justinian, Narzes invited the Lombards under Alboin into Italy. Originally from the Baltic, they now came out of Pannonia, and established themselves in the plain that bears their name—568 A.D. The Persians, too, began to assail the Empire on the east. Not was it until Heraclius the African gained the Byzantine throne, by means of a revolution which overthrew the vicious Phocas, that the tide turned. Chosroes II. was then King of Persia. Antioch, Jerusalem, even Tripoli fell before him; and a Persian camp lay for ten years in sight of Constantinople, on the opposite side of the Bosphorus. Heraclius concluded a peace and promised tribute. But he then made a mighty effort, and succeeded in driving the Persians back over the Euphrates, and expelling Chosroes from Ctesiphon. He reigned from 610 to 640 A.D.

Of the twenty-two Byzantine Emperors, who filled the throne between the death of Heraclius and the beginning of the Macedonian Dynasty in 867, but few deserve mention. The seat of the Eastern Empire was threatened by Bulgarians and Arabians, especially the latter, against whom in the great seven years' siege (668–675 A.D.) the famous Greek fire was used with telling effect.

During this time a controversy about the worship of images began to convulse the Church. Gregory III. in Rome denounced the sin of image-breaking, after Leo III. at Constantinople had interdicted the worship of images. The successors of the latter continued to forbid the idolatry; until Irene, mother of Constantine VI., assumed power as Regent, and soon caused her son to be blinded and afterwards slain. By her exertions the Council of Nicaea in 787 declared the worship of images good and right. But the Eastern Church never accepted the reconciliation with Rome, opened by this change. The idolatries of the East grew so great as to call forth the Synod of Frankfurt, held in 794 by Charlemagne, at which all image-worship was distinctly forbidden. Irene was dethroned in 802 A.D.

Under Theodora, mother and guardian of Michael III, the veneration of images, but not their worship, was restored in the East by a Council of Nicæa, held in 842 A.D.

In 867 the Macedonian Dynasty was founded by Basilus, a man of humble extraction.

As Italy and Persia have been named frequently in the foregoing sketch of Byzantine history, I now take up the thread of events in these countries, before proceeding to describe the strange doings in Arabia under Mohammed.

ITALY (476-774 A.D.).

Odoacer.—This chief of the Heruli ruled in Italy as *Patricius* over the Romans, and *King* of his own Goths until 493 A.D. He permitted the Visigoths to hold Southern Gaul and the Vandals to occupy Sicily. But it was from Constantinople that danger came. Zeno saved the Eastern Capital from a menaced siege by inducing Theodoric the Ostrogoth—a gallant prince, who as a hostage had resided long at the Byzantine court—to turn his arms against Italy. Defeated at Verona, Odoacer retired to Ravenna, and was soon afterwards slain at a feast—493 A.D.

Theodoric.—The reign of Theodoric (493-526) was peaceful and prosperous. New buildings arose, and the land was cultivated. Though a holder of the Arian tenets, which denied the divinity of Christ, he tolerated other creeds. The Italians held most of the civil offices; but he retained military posts for the Goths. Cassiodorus the historian was his prime minister. In addition to Italy he ruled over Rhaetia, Illyricum, and Sicily; and by the marriage of his daughters extended his influence into Spain and Gaul. In his latter years he became suspicious of intrigues formed against him at the court of Constantinople; and among the victims of his fears was *Boëthius*, who, being imprisoned at Pavia, wrote a well-known book, *De Consolatione Philosophiæ*. Theodoric died in 526 A.D.

Decline of the Ostrogothic Kingdom.—The Greeks under Belisarius, a general already named, soon invaded Italy. Vitiges

the Ostrogothic King was defeated, and Rome was wrested from him. The Franks also took Milan. Nor was Totilas, the next King of the Ostrogoths, able to withstand the arms of the Byzantines, when directed by Narses, the successful rival of Belisarius. Having slain Totilas, the conqueror, as Exarch of Ravenna, administered the affairs of Italy wisely for a time. A disagreement between Narses and Justin II., the Byzantine Emperor, led the former to invite Alboin, King of the Lombards, to invade Italy.

Lombard Invasion of Italy.—The Lombards or Longobardi, whose original seat probably was the bank of Elbe, were then seated in Pannonia; and Alboin was rejoicing over the discomfiture of the Gepids, from whose king's skull he had drunk blood after the fashion of those brutal times. In 568 A.D. he led his whole nation over the Alps; and descended into the basin of the Po. There Pavia became his capital. The Byzantine power shrank before this invasion into Ravenna, Rome, Naples, and a portion of the coast-line.

Lombard Rule in Italy.—The Lombards treated the Italians with great cruelty. After the murder of Alboin and Cleph, thirty-six Dukes held the power for ten years (574–84). Residing in the towns, they extended their ravages on every side. Among the results of such oppression was the flight of various Roman families to the islands and lagoons at the head of the Adriatic, where, engaging in a seafaring life, they laid the foundations of the Venetian State. After the Dukes had held power for ten years, elective monarchy came into favour again; and the Lombards engaged in struggles with the Popes, now rising into prominence at Rome. The most noted Lombard King was *Rotari*, who published in 644 A.D. a code of written laws. Another able lawgiver was Luitprand, whose successor Astulf subdued Ravenna, and overthrew the Exarchate. His designs on Rome sent the Pope to the Franks for aid; which Pepin granted, defeating the Lombards. The last Lombard King was *Desiderius*, who was made prisoner by Charlemagne in 774 A.D.

Origin of the Papacy.—Side by side with the Lombard King-

dom and the Exarchate, a power had been growing up at Rome, destined to a life and influence incalculably greater than these. This was the Papal Power. From very early times the Bishop of Rome became a leader in the Christian Church. The first great pontiff was Innocent, who, while Honorius cowered in Ravenna, was head of Rome, and who, when Alarie sacked the city, raised it from its ashes. The controversy between Augustine and Pelagius, regarding original sin, raged during his time: and he sided with the great African.

Leo I. (440–461 A.D.) was the Pope, who headed a procession of priests to the camp of Attila the Hun, and prevailed upon the barbarian to spare Rome. He was less successful with Genseric the Vandal. Meanwhile men like Jerome, Ambrose of Milan, and Augustine of Hippo were shaping the doctrines of the growing Church.

Gregory the Great (590–604 A.D.) wrote a well-known letter to the Patriarch of Constantinople, objecting to the use by that pontiff of the title, *Universal Bishop*. It was under this Pope that Augustine was despatched to Britain in order to bring that distant island within the pale of the Church. He saw the fierce Lombards also yielding to the softening influences of Christianity.

Under Gregory II. (715–731) the controversy about the worship of images, already referred to, arose between Rome and Constantinople. The beginning of the temporal power of the Pope dated from the gift by Pepin the Short to Pope Stephen II. of the Exarchate, taken from the Lombards (755).

PERSIA (226 A.D.–651 A.D.).

The Sassanides.—By the overthrow of the Arsacides in 226 A.D., Parthia became a new Persia, with an Artaxerxes on its throne. This monarch, and his successors—the Sapers—waged victorious war against the Romans; and, when Rome had fallen, the Sassanides measured their strength again and again with the generals of the East. In particular, Chosroes or Nushirvan

(531-579 A.D.) contended with Belisarius fiercely and not without result. Under this great monarch Persia extended its frontiers from the Mediterranean to the Indus, and from the Caucasus to Arabia. Chosroes II. engaged in war with Heraclius the Byzantine Emperor; but, after a career of victory in Syria, Palestine, and Asia Minor, he yielded to superior genius, retreated beyond the Euphrates, and was expelled from Ctesiphon. The last Sassanid monarch was Yezdegerd III., whose empire sank in 651 A.D. before the Arabs.

ARABIA to 753 A.D.

Two Races.—In addition to the Bedouins, claiming descent from Ishmael, who wandered among the oases of Arabia, there was a coast population, busily engaged in commerce and the arts. Spices, jewels, and rich cloths were the articles of their trade. The centre of their worship was the Caaba at Mecca, rebuilt about 440 by the head of the family *Koreish*, which henceforth acted as guardians of the sacred place. In 525 A.D. a conquering army from Abyssinia taught Christianity in Yemen, the southwestern angle of the peninsula; but these were expelled by a Persian force in 575 A.D.

Mohammed.—The great founder of Islam was born at Mecca in 571, from parents of the noble race *Koreish*—the guardians of the Caaba. After forty years spent in mercantile life, he proclaimed his system and his mission (611 A.D.). The preaching of his doctrines excited his own tribe against him to such a degree that nothing but a speedy flight from Mecca saved his life. The date of this escape—July 16, 622 A.D.— **622** forms the *Hegira*, from which Moslems reckon the years A.D. of their history. Medina was the place of Mohammed's refuge. From a theorist on religion he became a fierce warrior, exclaiming that "the sword is the key of heaven and hell." Warring both with the *Koreish* and the Jews settled in Northern Arabia, he won the great battle of Houndin. And at Muta near the Dead Sea he met the Byzantine troops, and sig-

nally defeated them. In 629 A.D. he occupied Mecca with his soldiers, and strewed the Caaba with the fragments of three hundred and sixty idols. His lieutenant took Akaba on the Red Sea: and he was going to Damascus himself, when he felt the approaches of death, and returned to Medina, where fever cut him off in 632 A.D.

Omar.—After Abu Beker, one father-in-law of Mohammed, had reigned for two years as *Caliph* or successor, Omar, another father-in-law, took the caliphate. He in 637 conquered Jerusalem, where a mosque with his name soon rose to replace the Jewish temple. The conquest of Syria followed. In Egypt Amru took Alexandria; in Persia another lieutenant defeated the last Sassanid King at Kadesia and took Madayn his capital. Omar was assassinated in 644 A.D.

Othman and Ali.—Under Othman the conquest of Persia was completed, and the power of the Arabs extended to Tripoli in Africa. Having built a fleet, the Emir of Syria took Cyprus and Rhodes, in the latter place breaking to pieces the brass *Colossus* or statue of the Sun. In order to curb the pretensions of men, who strove to interpret the Koran after their own fashion, Othman published a new edition of the book, altered to meet *his* views of government. The murder of Othman made Ali caliph; but discord was beginning to break up the central power of Islam. Two great factions arose—*Sonnites* or Orthodox, and *Shiites* or Schismatics (as their foes called them). The former opposed Ali: and the division thus begun runs through the whole history of Moslemism, separating to this day the Turks, who are *Sonnites*, from the Persians, who are *Shiites*. The murder of Ali in 661 elevated Moawyah, Emir of Syria, to the caliphate. He was the first of the Ommiyades, who held power until 749 A.D.

Dynasty of the Ommiyades.—This race took their name from Ommiyah, one of the Koreish, who governed Syria under Omar. Moawyah, the first caliph of the line, fixed his capital at Damascus, as more central than Mecca, and, with a fleet on the Mediterranean under an *Amir-al-Ma* (captain at sea, the original

of our world *admiral*), he extended his territory widely. His lieutenant Akbah conquered the northern shore of Africa as far as Tunis, south of which he founded *Cairouan*. At two points—the Bosphorus and the Strait of Gibraltar—Europe almost touches another continent: and at these the Arabs made fierce invasions. For seven years (668-675) they carried on a siege of Constantinople, but were repelled by the Greek fire. Another attempt in 717 was still more signally failed. But these defeats were counterbalanced by success in Africa, where Cyrene, Tripoli, Carthage yielded in succession; and the Moslems poured on in a remorseless flood to the headlands opposite Spain. It was during the caliphate of Walid that Tarik, a lieutenant of Musa the Saracen leader, led an army across the Strait of Gibraltar to the peninsula, where a great Visigothic kingdom had been existing since before the fall of Rome. Roderick, "last of the Goths," was defeated on the field of Xeres—Musa secured the conquest—and the Moslems soon established themselves in Cordova as a centre. But Spain did not content them. Crossing the Pyrenees, they attempted the conquest of France also; but a defeat at Tours, inflicted in 732 A.D. by Charles Martel, drove them southward beyond the mountain-wall.

Discontent grew into rebellion at the centre of Moslemism. Hereticism rose against Mervan II., last of the Ommyiad Caliphs; and, when the rebel was slain, his more successful brother took up his sword, and drove Mervan in flight to Egypt, where he was killed in 750 A.D. This ended the Ommyiad line in the East: the Abbassides now began to hold the caliphate.

Although this does not bring the history of Moslemism down to the time of Charlemagne, it is convenient to drop the thread at this point, and turn to the history of the Franks.

THE FRANKS to 814 A.D.

Clovis—When the feeble hand of Rome let go, in her decay, the possession of Gaul and Germany, a great number of wild

tribes reigned riotously in the dark forests of these lands. But the Franks (*frak*, free) rose to the head of affairs, especially when Clovis, a captain of the Salian Franks, who at first occupied Belgium, fixed his station at *Lutetia* or Paris, and set up a show of royalty with a crown and mantle, sent to him from Constantinople—511 A.D. This man, whose softened name is familiar in French history as Louis, founded the Frankish monarchy.

Merovingian Dynasty (511–752).—The race of Clovis had already been called the Merovingians, from *Meroveg*, a sea-warrior, who was third of their chiefs. This name specially belongs to the dynasty founded by Clovis, and lasting from 511 to 752 A.D.

An immediate result of Clovis' death was the division of his kingdom into four parts;—1. Austrasia, east of Rhine; 2. Neustria, north of Loire; 3. Aquitaine, from Loire to the Pyrenees; 4. Burgundy, in the centre. There was a redistribution under Clotaire I.; but the strong hand of Dagobert I. (622–638) seized the whole monarchy.

After his time the Merovingian Kings sank into mere puppets—*rois fainéants*—who cherished their great fleeces of hair, but left the affairs of government to a prime minister, known as Mayor of the Palace. Pepin of Heristal, Mayor of Theodoric III., ruling from 687 to 714, made this influential office hereditary.

Pepin's son was the great *Charles Martel* (the Hammer), who ruled in Austrasia. France, and indeed all Western Europe, owed much to his prowess; for, when the Arabs came pouring through the gorges of the Pyrenees upon the fertile river-basins of France, he met them on a plain near Tours (732 A.D.), and inflicted on them a decisive defeat.

Pepin the Short succeeded his father as Mayor. Having given his aid to Pope Zachary, he was repaid by that pontiff by being put on the throne of France, to the exclusion of Childeric III., who went to a convent. This brought the Merovingian Dynasty to a close in 752 A.D. The Saxon Winifred—afterwards made Archbishop of Mayence—gave Pepin important assistance in controlling and Christianizing his subjects.

Charlemagne.—Pepin was the first monarch of the Carolingian

line. Dying in 768, he left two sons—Carloman and Charles. The death of the former left Charles—better known as Charlemagne—monarch of an extensive realm, comprising portions of the two countries we now call France and Germany—771 A.D.

Charlemagne waged a great and tedious war with the Saxons, who dwelt chiefly round the Weser. They had a brave warrior, Wittikind, who appeared in arms again and again, until he was finally defeated at Dethmold. This war lasted from 772 to 804 A.D.

A shorter war defeated Desiderius the Lombard King, whose final stand was made at Pavia—774 A.D. Charlemagne then assumed the iron crown of Lombardy.

The remembrance of the field of Tours excited Charlemagne in 778 A.D. to lead an army into Spain, where the Emirate of Cordova—a Moslem power independent of the Abbaside Caliphs—had grown into strength. The capture of Saragossa laid Aragon and Navarre at his feet. But the disaster of Roncevalles, where in a defile of the Pyrenees his rear-guard was destroyed by the Basques, took some brightness from these laurels. Charlemagne having engaged in a war with the Avars, his son penetrated Hungary, and took the Ring at Buda, a fortress stored with riches.

The proudest day in this great monarch's reign was the Christmas of 800, when Pope Leo III. crowned him in 800
St. Peter's at Rome as "Charles Augustus, Emperor of A.D.
the Romans."

With sad foresight Charlemagne feared the Norsemen. His own empire, whose centre was Aix-la-Chapelle, was safe enough, while he lived; but the gentle Louis, who was to succeed him, was ill fitted to cope with foes so fierce. Charlemagne died in 814 A.D.

THE BRITISH ISLES.

ENGLAND (449-827 A.D.).

Teutonic Conquest.—It is said that three ships, led by Hengist and Horsa, came to Thanet in Kent in 449 A.D., and landed

bands representing three Teutonic tribes—Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. During the next century and a half seven kingdoms, called the Saxon Heptarchy, were founded along the eastern and southern coasts, and in the centre of South Britain. These were:—1. Kent; 2. Sussex; 3. Wessex; 4. Essex; 5. Northumbria; 6. East Anglia; 7. Mercia.

Various men of power arose in the wars which convulsed these states;—such as Edwin of Deira; Ina, the lawgiver of Wessex; Penda and Offa, fierce men of war, who ruled in Mercia: but the tendency of every change was to centralize all power ultimately in Wessex, which extended its bounds from Hants and Wilts until it occupied the whole land. The wars, which fused the Seven States into the single realm of *England*, blended the various, though kindred, races of the early settlements into the Anglo-Saxon nation.

During the progress of this change, the coming of Augustine as a missionary from Rome in 597, and the beginning of Danish invasions at Dorchester in 787, were notable events.

Egbert, King of Wessex, who attained to supreme power over all England in 827, was a contemporary and friend of Charlemagne, who gave him shelter for fourteen years, during which a usurper held the throne of his rightful kingdom.

SCOTLAND.

North Britain was at first inhabited by the Caledonians, or “people of the woods,” who are regarded as being of Gothic descent. The tribe Scoti, who ultimately gave a name to the country, emigrated early in the Christian era from the north of Ireland to Argyll, where they founded a kingdom called *Dalriada*. A nation called the *Picts* held the districts north of Forth and Clyde, while a small independent realm, Reged or Strathclyde, occupied the basin of the Clyde. The same process of conquest as expanded Wessex into England, made Kenneth MacAlpin, King of Dalriada, sole monarch of the northern part of the island in 843 A.D. But the name of Scotland was not in use for at least a century afterwards.

Scotland was Christianized by an Irish monk, Columba, who passed from Donegal to Iona about 563 A.D., and whose disciples—the Culdees—spread the knowledge of the Gospel even into the north of England.

IRELAND.

The position of Ireland in the extreme west, as its name signifies, gave it peace from external foes, while England and Scotland were in the throes of national construction. The present condition is a sad reverse of the picture. Under the Romans it was a last refuge of the Druids, who fixed their great temple at Tara in Meath. But St. Patrick, who was a native of Strathclyde, crossed the narrow sea to preach Christianity in what afterwards was called “The Island of the Saints.” Leogaire MacNeill was first of the Christian Kings. Religion and learning prospered side by side in this island; and some of the arts also flourished. At last the Danes found their way to the coasts, and obtained a footing in the sea-ports, where they were called Ostmen.

SECOND PERIOD OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

FROM 814 A.D. TO 1291 A.D.

The reign of Alfred the Great (871–901); the reign in Germany of Otto the Great (962–973); the conquest of England by the Normans in 1066; the Papacy of Hildebrand; the career of Jeoghiz Khan; and the Crusades, eight in number and extending over two centuries (1096–1291), form the most notable features of the Second Period, into which I have divided the Middle Ages.

THE MOHAMMEDANS (753 to 1250 A.D.).

In Asia.—We have seen that Abul Abbas established the Moslem dynasty of the Abbassides in 753 A.D. To his successor Al-Mansur was due the foundation of Bagdad, which became a centre of Eastern splendour. But the Caliph, who most adorned his station and wielded the wildest influence in the world, was

Haroun-al-Raschid (Aaron the Just), the contemporary of Charlemagne.

Distinguished in early life for valour displayed in wars against the Greeks, Haroun, becoming Caliph in 786, began to encourage arts and letters. In the story-book called *The Arabian Nights* we find a picture of the city he ruled, and the life he lived. In a war of some length he obliged the Byzantine Emperor, Nicephorus I., to pay tribute that was due. One stain rests on the name of Haroun—a wild revenge he took upon his Barmecide vizier, of whom he became groundlessly jealous. Haroun died in 808, while conducting an expedition against the rebel satrap of Khorasan.

Contests for the Caliphate wore out its strength; and Motasem (833–42) formed a body-guard of Turks—natives of bleak Turkestan—who had been converted to the Moslem faith. These guards gained an ascendancy at Bagdad similar to that of the Prætorians in Rome; and at length secured the right of electing their own captain. One province after another then broke off from the Caliphate, until it shrank almost to Bagdad alone, and the power of the Caliphs was delegated to an officer called *Emir-al-Omra* (i.e., Captain of Captains), who resembled somewhat the French Mayor of the Palace. By this arrangement the Caliph became a mere cipher, exercising a nominal rule as High-Priest of the Mosque.

The Emirate, becoming a source of contention, was held in turn by the *Buides*, a family who had conquered Persia, and the *Seljuks*, a Turkish race, who gained the position in 1056. The Turks were already beginning to grow strong. One of them named Achmed conquered Egypt in 868; and the Sultan Mahmoud, subduing Central Asia from the Sea of Aral to the Ganges, established the dynasty of the *Gaznavides*, who took their name from Gazna, the Sultan's residence (about 1000 A.D.).

Togrul Beg, ruling the Seljuk Turks at the time of the Norman Conquest of England, wrested from the Caliph both Bagdad and the dignity of *Emir-al-Omra*. His nephew Alp Arslan warred with the Byzantine Emperor successfully; and

Malik Shah, the son of this warrior, reduced Syria and Palestine under Turkish dominion in 1076 A.D.

This event brings the history of the East and the West into close connection, for from the brutal treatment of Christian pilgrims by these Turkish masters of Jerusalem arose the anger which kindled the Crusades.

In Africa.—The Moslem dominions along the Barbary shore broke into two kingdoms. The *Aglabites* governed from Egypt to Tunis during the ninth century; the *Edrisites* ruled in Ceuta, Fez, and Mauritania. But both fell in 912 before the prowess of the *Fatimites*, who claimed descent from Mohammed's daughter Fatima.

The Fatimites then ruled from the Atlantic to the Red Sea, and, fixing their seat of power at Cairo, extended their sway over Palestine and Syria. But dissension produced decay here too; and in 1171 the last Fatimite yielded to the Sultan Saladin.

In Spain.—In 755 Abd-el-Rahman, of the Ommyiad line, fled from Asia to Spain, and, placing the centre of his power at Cordova, erected in the Peninsula an independent Emirate. Charlemagne and the Goths troubled him on the north.

Abd-el-Rahman III. extended the Moslem power in Spain, and made the land rich in crops and the cities rich in learning. His successor Al-Hakem also encouraged literature. There soon arose in the north a formidable foe—Alphonso VI. of Castile—to withstand whose attacks the Arabs, or Saracens, as they were called, invited over to their aid Joseph, King of Morocco. He came and defeated the Castilian; but he took occasion to establish a Moorish Empire in Spain by the conquest of those who had invited him to come—1087 A.D. In these wars Diaz de Bivar, known as the Cid, displayed his valour.

The battle of **Navas de Tolosa**, won over the Moors in 1212 by Alphonso IX. of Castile, who commanded an allied force of Christian soldiers, was fatal to the extension of Moslem power in Spain. The advantage thus gained was improved, until in 1250 the Moorish dominions had shrunk to the single province of Granada.

THE CRUSADES (1096-1291 A.D.).

There were eight Crusades, or Wars of the Cross.

Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, having obtained leave from Pope Urban II., travelled through Italy and France, calling upon all true Christian soldiers to fight for the rescue of the Holy Sepulchre from the Infidels.

1. The **First Crusade** set out in 1096 under Godfrey of Boulogne. It took them nine months to march across Europe to Constantinople. The siege of Nice, and a victory at Dorylæum over the Turkish horse marked their progress through Asia Minor, from which they did not emerge without much suffering during their passage through Taurus. The siege of Syrian Antioch then detained them; but at last they
1099 reached Jerusalem, which fell in five weeks. Godfrey,
 A.D. elected King of Jerusalem, defeated the Sultan of Egypt in the battle of Ascalon.

2. St. Bernard of Clairvaux was the apostle of the **Second Crusade**, which began in 1147. Following the path of the earlier Crusaders, Louis VII. of France and Conrad III. of Germany passed across Europe and Asia Minor. The army of the latter was destroyed in Cappadocia; and, though Louis struggled on to Jerusalem, the Crusade was an utter failure.

3. More romance gilds the story of the **Third Crusade** (1189-92). Richard III. of England, Philip Augustus of France, and Frederic Barbarossa of Germany assumed the Cross. Frederic, starting first, passed victoriously into Asia Minor; but was cut off by death in Cilicia. The fortress of Acre, opposite Mount Carmel, and regarded as a key of Palestine, had fallen into the hands of Saladin, the Turkish Monarch, who had made himself master of Jerusalem in 1187.

Saladin, who had raised himself from being Vizier of Egypt to the Turkish throne by the overthrow of the last Fatimite Caliph, was a great soldier with a chivalrous heart.

There was much delay in the transport of the English army to

Palestine. Philip reached Acre long before Richard; but it was not until the Lion-heart arrived that Acre fell. But this was almost all that the English King achieved. He won a battle at Joppa, advanced within twenty miles of Jerusalem, and then made a truce with Saladin before returning to Europe.

4. The events of the **Fourth Crusade** (1195-97), undertaken by Henry VI., Emperor of Germany, were the capture of Beirout, and the ignominious flight of the Crusaders from the siege of Thaurin.

5. The soldiers of the **Fifth Crusade** never reached Jerusalem. Dandolo, Doge of Venice, who was to supply transports, induced them to retake for him the city of Zara in Dalmatia, which had revolted. They then accepted an invitation to restore Isaac, the dethroned Emperor, to his position in Constantinople.

Dandolo, though blind, lent them valuable aid even in 1203 actual fight; and the fall of Constantinople (1203) caused A.D. the emperor to vacate the throne of the Byzantine Empire.

6. Frederic II. of Germany headed the **Sixth Crusade**. A feud with the Pope, Gregory IX., however, caused the clergy to look coldly on his successes in Palestine. These were rather works of peace than of war; for he secured by treaty the possession of Jerusalem and Bethleheim (1229).

7. The **Seventh Crusade** was led by Saint Louis IX. of France. His principal exploit was the reduction of Damietta; but a defeat at Mansourah prepared the way for his capture at Hlrich. The restoration of Damietta and the payment of a large sum in gold purchased his release, after which he spent four useless years at Acre previous to his return to France.

8. Saint Louis went upon an **Eighth Crusade** to Africa, where pestilence cut him off. Edward I. of England, then only Prince Edward, afterwards led his Crusaders to the Holy Land, but achieved nothing of consequence there. The fall of Acre in 1291 before Sultan Khalil and his Mamelukes may be regarded as closing this great series of wars.

GERMANY (814-1273 A.D.).

Division of Empire.—Louis le Debonnaire, a gentle monkish scholar, who succeeded his father Charlemagne in 814, felt the task of governing so much beyond his strength, that he divided his empire among his three sons, giving a preference to Lothaire the eldest. This made Louis and Charles discontented; and after their father's death, which occurred in 840, they united their strength and defeated Lothaire at Fontenaille. Two
843 years after this battle, a treaty was concluded at Verdun
A.D. (843 A.D.), by which Louis received Germany, and Charles France, while Italy was left to Lothaire.

Charles the Fat, a son of Louis, became Emperor of all in 884; but his feeble rule ceased in 887, and out of the Frankish monarchy grew four States—France, Germany, Italy, and Burgundy—of which three are still represented on the map of Europe.

THE SAXON EMPERORS.

Carlovingians ruled in Germany until 911, when Conrad of Franconia was raised to the throne. At this time five Dukes became prominent, possessing a power largely independent. But of the five—Saxon, Suabian, Bavarian, Franconian, Thuringian—the first gained the supremacy, and Saxon Emperors began to rule in Germany. These, five in number, held the Imperial throne for more than a century.

Henry I. (the Fowler).—The union of Saxons and Franco-nians placed Henry, a Saxon, on the throne in 919. His first task was the subjugation of certain Dukes, who opposed his election. But the irruption of Hungarians from the east gave him most trouble. He built fortified castles on that frontier, equipped a fine cavalry force, and so withstood the fierce Magyars, that he broke their power for a time in the battle of Merseburg in 933. Before his death, in 936, he had attained the position of being the greatest monarch in Europe.

Otho I. (the Great) succeeded his father. A victory on the

Lothfeld near Augsburg relieved his territory from Hungarian incursions; and he then formed an Eastern district—the nucleus of Austria—to guard his frontier. Having married Adelaide, widow of Lothaire, King of Italy, he applied to the Pope for the crown of the Western Empire. He received it in 962 from Pope John XII., having been previously dignified with the **962** imperial crown of the Lombards at Milan. Italy much **A.D.** needed the strong hand of a reformer. The Pope, sur-named Infamous, was forced to give place to an honest man. The lawless nobles were stripped of power, which was given to the bishops; and beautiful Italy felt again the breath of freedom.

Otho II. married Theophano, daughter of the Byzantine Emperor, Romanus II., who gave him as a dowry the dominion of Lower Italy. But his efforts to secure his power there were baffled by a defeat at Rossano. He died in 983, leaving a son, three years old, to succeed him.

Otho III., brought up by his mother and grandmother, who acted as regents, took a sharp revenge, when he came to have the feelings of a man, upon Rome, whose factions had been hostile to his father and himself. The Consul Crescentius, who had been the leader of the opposite party, suffered death. But the Italian air and his Roman troubles combined to cut off the Emperor at the age of twenty-two—1002 A.D.

Henry II. of Bavaria was then elected to the empire, and ruled until 1024, when the line of Saxon Emperors ended.

FRANCONIAN EMPEROES (1024-1125 A.D.).

Conrad II., Duke of Franconia, was then elected Emperor. Under him Burgundy was added to the empire. He died in 1039.

Henry III., his son, in order to relieve his people under famine and oppression, promulgated the *Peace of God*, which obliged all soldiers to observe peace from Wednesday evening to Monday, and during the seasons called Advent and Lent.

Ever since the time of Otho the Great, the Emperors had been

accustomed to wield great influence in the papal elections, until the Roman nobles, who desired to sell the office, began to claim the right of interference. Henry put this firmly down, taking the election of Pope into his own hands (1046). He also curbed the German dukes, and disposed of their duchies in various ways.

Henry IV. succeeded his father. During his nonage there were contests as to the care of his person; but he fell into the hands of Adalbert, Archbishop of Bremen, who encouraged him in luxury and vice. The most striking event of his reign was connected with a serious quarrel that broke out between him and Pope Gregory VII., earlier known as the Monk Hildebrand. The grand aim of this pontiff being to make the papal power supreme over all Christendom, he issued a decree that all the clergy, who had been appointed by laymen, should resign. This was specially levelled at Henry, who, instead of submitting, appointed an Archbishop of Cologne. The Emperor, moreover, convoked a synod of German bishops, who declared that Gregory had no right to the tiara. The Pope retaliated by

1077 excommunicating Henry: and in 1077 the greatest

A.D. temporal monarch in the world was forced to stand

barefoot on the frosty earth at Canossa for three days waiting for admission to the presence of Gregory, who withdrew his direful edict only on condition of complete submission. But Henry failed to keep his promises: Rudolf of Suabia was elected Emperor: and a war began between the rivals. In 1080 Rudolf died of a wound. The tide then turned. Henry besieged Rome, which fell in three years. Guido of Ravenna, under the name of Clement III, was made Pope, Gregory having been driven into exile at Salerno. Then died Hildebrand in 1085, almost with his last breath uttering maledictions on Henry and the Pope of his election. The last days of Henry were troubled by the rebellion of his sons, and continual struggles with the Dukes and Counts of the Empire regarding whether the succession should be elective or hereditary. They supported the former plan; he fought for the latter. In 1105 the old Emperor resigned the crown of a realm which under him had been torn with endless

civil discord; and in the following year he died suddenly at Liège.

Henry V. continued the War of Investitures until the question was compromised between the Emperor and the Pope by the *Concordat of Worms*, in 1122. Another and fiercer struggle was meanwhile growing to a head. This was the war between the Guelphs and the Ghibellines, to which further allusion will be made in the history of Italy. The feud arose from a bequest made to the Church by Countess Matilda of Tuscany. The Guelphs upheld the Italian cause; the Ghibellines that of the Emperor. Henry V., last of the Franconian Emperors, died in 1125.

SWABIAN EMPERORS (1125-1272 A.D.).

After Lothaire of Saxony had held the Imperial crown for twelve years, it passed to Conrad of Suabia, who ruled as Conrad III. (1137-1152). He stripped of all his dominions Henry the Proud of Bavaria, who had received also Hanover and Saxony by marriage; but he restored Saxony to Henry the Lion. His name has been mentioned as a sharer in the disasters of the Second Crusade.

Frederic Barbarossa (Red-beard), the nephew of Conrad, was elected to succeed him. He soon engaged in a struggle with the Lombard cities of Northern Italy, now growing strong and prosperous, and claiming the rights of republics. Milan fell before him in 1162; but a strong resistance, called the *League of Lombards*, was framed, and the struggle lasted for nine years, ending at the battle of Legnano (1176) in the decisive triumph of the Cities, which by the peace of Constance (1183) acquired the right to govern themselves. A successful war with Henry the Lion of Saxony also marked his reign.

Frederic met his death in Asia Minor, while bound for Palestine to fight in the Third Crusade—1189.

Henry VI., surnamed the Severe, reigned for scarcely eight years. His conquest of Naples and Sicily was marked with excessive cruelty.

During the minority of Frederic II., Otho IV. managed to

secure the crown: but the Pope turned against him; and when Frederic became old enough, he received the imperial power. Residing for the most part in Italy, Frederic delayed to fulfil his promise of taking the Cross, until the Pope rebuked him. Frederic ravaged the Papal territory, and drew down on himself the thunder of excommunication. Then he went to Palestine in spite of the Pope, and, as before related, succeeded in obtaining Jerusalem by treaty from the Sultan.

The rest of Frederic's reign was spent in an Italian war, fomented by the Pope, Gregory IX., who stirred up the Cities against him. A defeat at Parma caused him to retire to Naples, where he died of fever in 1250.

Hanseatic League.—In 1247 Hamburg and Lubeck united in a league to defend their shipping against pirates, and to extend their commerce. This league, known as the *Hansa*, attracted all the chief cities of the sea-board along the German Ocean and the Baltic Sea, whose waters they commanded. It flourished for about four centuries; but, when the discoveries of Columbus and Vasco turned the commerce of Europe into other channels, it decayed and broke. The cities of the Rhine formed a similar league of mutual defence.

After Frederic's death there was a period of anarchy, during which two rival claimants for the Imperial crown—Richard Earl of Cornwall, brother to Henry III. of England, and Alphonso X. of Castile—being elected by opposing factions, bore the empty honour. Many German cities began to govern themselves; and the petty princes acted independently. This lasted until 1273, when the first of the Hapsburgs became Emperor.

FRANCE (814 TO 1328 A.D.).

Carlovingians.—When Louis the German and Charles of Neustria defeated Lothaire in the battle of Fontenaille (841), Germany and France had birth as separate nations. The Treaty of Verdun (843) confirmed the issue of that battle, leaving the

Rhine as a partial boundary—of which, however, the Teutons have always had the tighter hold.

Norsemen.—France under the effete descendants of Charlemagne suffered much from the attacks of Norse pirates, who sailed up the Seine in flat-bottomed skiffs even to Paris. During the reign of Charles the Simple, Rollo the Norseman, or Norman, secured a fiefing in the fair province, whose name reminds us of the fact. The territory was yielded on condition that an oath of fealty should be sworn to France. Rollo, when 911 the time came to kiss the foot of Charles, bade one of his A.D. retainers perform the task; which the rough soldier did so effectually, that the lifting of the royal leg from the ground laid Charles on his back.

Odo, Count of Paris, had seized the throne before the accession of Charles the Simple. Robert, Odo's brother, began a civil war, which placed Charles in a prison, and drove his son Louis an exile into England. Rodolf of Burgundy was then elected, and ruled amid a storm of civil war, until Louis D'Outremer (*from beyond sea*) returned to occupy his father's place. His great supporter was Hugo, Duke of Francia. Lothaire and Louis V. closed the line of Carolingians in France.

THE CAJET KINGS (987-1328 A.D.)

Hugh Capet, the son of Hugo the Great, Count of Francia, became King in virtue of his strength and manhood at a time when universal fear darkened the Christian world. For it was currently believed that when the last hour of 999 should lapse away, the note of the final destruction was to sound. The earth was not tilled; famine began to ravage the lands; and men preyed even on one another's flesh. Hugh died in 996; and his son Robert succeeded him.

Robert (996-1031) was forced by the Pope, who laid an Interdict upon the land, to give up Bertha, a wife he loved, because she was his cousin in the fourth degree.

Henry I. (1031-60) ruled over a land ravaged by the brutality of feudal nobles, to resist whose cruelties the clergy proclaimed

that "Truce of God" already referred to. The new lease, which seemed to be accorded to the world by the rising suns of the year 1000—notably to those olden people a year of grace—turned many to religious works, such as the building of cathedrals, and the prosecution of pilgrimages. One of the most distinguished pilgrims was Robert of Normandy, who died at Nicæa in 1035 on his journey homeward; and one of the most active and tasteful ecclesiastical builders was his son William, whom we know in English history as the Conqueror.

Philip I. was only seven when his father Henry died. During his minority William of Normandy, intent upon the invasion of England, was drawing all the restless nobles to his banner; and when the year 1066 witnessed his success, the conquest of the lower island still kept the French swords employed. Philip was very weak; and though the nobles were engaged, the Church was not. It was the Papacy of Hildebrand (1073–85), a man of the people, and he exerted his giant power successfully against this poor weakling. The First Crusade, in which France joined with immense enthusiasm, began during Philip's reign.

Louis VI., surnamed the Fat, benefited the nation much, especially by the establishment of the *Communes* with important privileges. Henry I. of England, now Duke of Normandy, gave this monarch much trouble, for as King of England he despised his Suzerain in France.

Louis VII. (1137–1180), a wise and gentle prince, suffered great loss of territory by divorcing his profligate wife Eleanor: for Henry II. of England married her at once, and she brought him as a dowry most of France, from the Loire to the Pyrenees; which, as he already held Anjou and Normandy, made him lord of twice as much territory in France as the nominal King of France could claim.

Philip Augustus (1180–1223) was a powerful King. His character does not appear in a favourable light, as the associate of Cœur de Lion in the Third Crusade. But at home he displayed skill and strength. He secured Artois; and, summoning recreant John of England to be tried as a vassal of France, for

the murder of young Arthur, he wrested from that monarch, on his refusal to appear, Touraine, Anjou, Maine, and Normandy.

In his reign a Crusade, stirred up by the Pope, moved against the *Albigenses* of Languedoc, who denied certain doctrines of Rome. The war lasted for more than twenty years, and ended in the total subjection of the Albigenses, who were trampled out as a separate people. Simon Montfort, father of the founder of our English House of Commons, was the leader of the crusading forces for a long time; while Raymond of Toulouse, and his brave nephew Raymond Roger, fought for the Albigensian cause. This secured for France the Mediterranean shore.

In 1214 the Emperor Otho, John of England, and the Count of Flanders made a league against Philip Augustus; but the French King, by his victory at Bouvines, broke its strength.

Louis VIII. was an unworthy successor of his great father. He attempted the conquest of England, and continued the Crusade against the Albigenses.

Louis IX. was surnamed Saint, from the contrast his gentle character bore to the fierce turbulence of the times. Somewhat of this he owed to his mother, Blanche of Castile. We have already seen Saint Louis on the Crusades. During his minority the feudal nobles resisted the royal power: but the burgesses rallied round their young King and his mother; and, when Louis grew to manhood, he made all classes in the land respect his rule. He married a princess of Provence. The Eighth Crusade was fatal to him, for he died of fever in Africa, 1270.

Philip the Bold succeeded (1270-1285). The chief events of his reign were connected with a Spanish war, in which he acquired Navarre.

Philip the Fair (1285-1314) was bold and warlike. Taking advantage of a quarrel between the English and the Norman sailors, he seized Guienno from Edward I. of England. He attempted to get possession of Flanders; but at Courtrai (1302) a body of weavers, armed with rude pikes, defeated his choice chivalry. But his great contest was with the Pope, Boniface VIII., who

in vain summoned the French clergy to Rome. They sided with their King, who audaciously declared, "that there were kings in France before there were bishops." Out of this contest grew the *States-General*, or representatives of the three estates, convened for the first time in 1302. Philip, with much cruelty, abolished the order of the Knights Templars. The three sons of Philip—**Louis X.**, **Philip V.**, **Charles IV.**—reigned in succession between 1314 and 1328; his daughter Isabella was married to Edward II. of England.

Jane, the daughter of Louis Hutin (*the Quarrelsome*), was deprived of her chance of succession by Philip her uncle, whose adherents secured the operation of the Salic law, excluding women from the throne. The kingdom has never therefore "fallen to the distaff." With the death of Charles IV. the line of Capet, properly so called, ceased to hold the French throne; and that branch of it called the House of Valois commenced to reign.

KINGDOM OF BURGUNDY (879-1032 A.D.).

During this period a Kingdom of Burgundy, which must not be confounded with the Duchy of Burgundy, that was so sharp a thorn in the side of France, rose and fell.

It broke off from France in 879 under Boso, under the name Arles, or Lower Burgundy, which contained the upper basins of Rhone and Saone. In 934 it was joined by Rudolf II. to Upper Burgundy; and the kingdom expanded to the delta of the Rhone, and over a great part of Switzerland. But in 1032 the stronger power of Germany absorbed it.

ITALY (774-1305 A.D.).

We must now view the history of Italy in four sections:—
1. Northern Italy under the Franks and the Emperors; 2. Papal Italy; 3. Southern Italy; 4. Venice.

Northern Italy.—The defeat of the Lombards in 774 left

Charlemagne master of Northern Italy. In 800 he was crowned at St. Peter's as Emperor of the Romans.

In 888 the Duke of Spoleto and Friuli contested the crown; and a period of confusion followed, which took the strong hand of the Emperor Otho I. to bring to some degree of order. The power of the Emperors in Italy then gradually declined, while that of the Lombard Cities grew strong, in spite of bitter animosities among themselves. The Lombard League was formed in 1167; and the Peace of Constance in 1183 secured the independence of the cities.

The growth of the contest between Guelphs and Ghibellines has been already noticed. It devastated the land, but stimulated the intellect of Italy, some of whose greatest men belonged to this time.

Papal Italy.—We have already seen how the Pope became a temporal sovereign. It took some further time to consolidate his power.

Under Leo III. (795–816) the Arians were suppressed in Spain and Italy; Boniface preached the supremacy of the Pope in Germany; and the Pontiff acquired the rank of first Bishop in the West, although he still continued to be a vassal of the Frankish Monarch.

During the anarchy which arose in Italy under the later Carolingians, the power of the Pope steadily increased. This however, as already told, met with a decided check from the German Emperors, who claimed and exercised the right of interfering in the Papal election. It was under Gregory VII. that the contest between Emperor and Pope blazed most fiercely.

This great Pontiff (1073–85), whose original name was Hildebrand, was a Tuscan. When he assumed the tiara, simony (*i.e.*, the selling of ecclesiastical preferments) was rife everywhere; and he set himself to root out the evil. Upon this point he came into collision with the Emperor Henry IV.—with what result we have seen. Gregory died at Salerno, whither he had retired upon the triumph of Henry. He, like our Wolsey, had his famous "last words"—"I have loved justice and hated iniquity, and therefore I die in exile."

It was under Urban II. that the Crusades began. The quarrel about Investitures was not settled until 1122, under Pope Calixtus II., when a compromise was made, assigning to the Pope the right of investing bishops with ring and crozier, and to the Emperor the conferring of the sceptre in sign of temporal power.

The language of the Popes thenceforward grew more authoritative, reaching even the point of speaking of Germany as a Papal fief. When Adrian IV. granted Ireland to Henry II., he did so on the ground that all islands were the property of St. Peter.

Innocent III. (1198–1216) vastly increased the Papal power. He forced the Imperial Prefect at Rome to swear allegiance to him. He set on foot the Crusade that crushed the Albigenses. He humbled King John of England, and imposed a tribute upon him. In fact he claimed to be Sovereign of Europe—an earthly King of kings. The extirpation of heresy and the exaltation of the tiara over every diadem in Christendom—these were the objects he pursued with unflinching rigour. This great Pontiff died in 1216 at Perugia, after having raised the Papacy to the greatest power it attained.

To his time was due the institution of monastic orders—the Dominicans or Blackfriars, and the Franciscans; and after his death the terrible machinery of the Inquisition was put in force.

The greed of the clergy for money, combined with the corruption of the Roman Court, excited anger in many lands; but the Popes tried to wield a still more despotic power. The quarrel reached a crisis between Boniface VIII. (1294–1303) and Philip the Fair of France. It was like the contest between Henry IV. and Hildebrand. Philip forbade the French clergy to pay anything without leave. He arrested the Papal Legate, and burned the Papal bulls. Boniface excommunicated him, and conferred France on the Emperor Albert I. Philip retorted that the Pope's election was illegal; and, going further, sent Nogaret into Italy to seize the sacred person of the Pontiff. A fever, arising from rage, killed Boniface; and his successor, yielding the point, cancelled the bull of excommunication.

Southern Italy.—After the death of Charlemagne the Arabs

conquered Sicily, took Bari, and plundered Rome. Malta fell into their power in 870; but in the following year Louis II. expelled them from Bari. The Arab and the Greek were then engaged in constant wars, until the Otthos of Germany sought to subdue the southern peninsula; this caused a union against the common foe between the recent enemies, who triumphed.

A band of Norman adventurers did good service, soon after the year 1000, in repelling Saracen pirates from Salerno. They soon made a bulwark for themselves in this luxurious country. Robert Guiscard, and his brother Roger, two handsome daring Normans, subdued Apulia and Calabria. In battle with the Byzantine troops the former won the field of Durazzo. The latter took Sicily from the Moslems.

Roger II. succeeded his father Robert as King of Naples and Sicily, and fixed his capital at Palermo. He drove both Greeks and Arabs from his realm.

The crown of Naples and Sicily was transferred from the Normans to a prince of the Hohenstaufens by the marriage of the Emperor Henry VI. to Constantia, daughter of Roger II. When she died, Innocent III., for his own purposes, became guardian of young Frederic II. This prince made Naples his capital. After the reign of Conrad there was a struggle for the crown of Naples between Manfred, Frederic's illegitimate son, and Charles of Anjou, the nominee of the Pope. The death of Manfred and the execution of Conradin, the last heir of his name, led to a struggle between Charles of Anjou and Peter of Aragon, who had married Manfred's daughter. Naples declared for the former; Sicily for the latter: and before the year in which both died (1285), the island and the mainland had become separate realms.

A striking incident in Italian history is known by the name of the Sicilian Vespers. The execution of the handsome young Countess by Charles of Anjou, the French conqueror of Naples, fostered in the hearts of the Italians, with whom 1282 the *vendetta* is often an hereditary duty. This feeling A.D. blazed out into massacre on the 30th of March 1282, at Palermo. It is said that a Frenchman insulted a lady in the catho-

dral. However that may have been, the first notes of the vespers-bell had scarcely rung, when every stiletto leaped from its sheath; and by next dawn there was scarcely a Frenchman alive in Sicily.

Venice.—On the lagoons at the mouth of the Brenta a colony of fishermen and salt-makers built a city, over which ruled a Doge. Its patron saint was Saint Mark; its foundation dated from 809. And when the Crusades caused the silks, gems, and spices of the East to flow into Europe, the commerce centred in this Queen of the Adriatic. Genoa grew rich from the same source.

One of the most celebrated of the early Doges was "blind old Dandolo," who, at the age of ninety, in spite of his blindness, led the successful attack of the Crusaders upon Constantinople in 1204, and refused the Imperial crown, which they offered him in admiration.

Venice gradually acquired Dalmatia, the Morea, Candia, and Cyprus. For a time she monopolized the East Indian trade. It was about this time (1275) that Marco Polo, a great Venetian traveller, crossed Asia, visiting Kublai Khan in Chinese Tartary, and having passed through China to the Pacific, sailed by Ceylon back to the Persian Gulf.

THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE (867-1261 A.D.).

The Macedonian Dynasty (867-1056).—This dynasty was founded in 867 by Basilus I., who reigned from 867 to 886. His successor was Leo VI. (886-911), surnamed the Philosopher. But John Zimisces (969-975) was the most famous of the line.

The empire was then pressed by foes on three sides—Arabs, Bulgarians, and Russians. During John's reign the last, under a savage leader named Swastoslof, penetrated as far south as Adrianople; but the Emperor drove him back upon the Danube.

This was a splendid period in Byzantine history. The silks and woollen cloths of Constantinople were prized everywhere; and the gorgeousness of the Court struck wonder into envoys from the infant states of the West.

Basil II., who conquered the Bulgarians, left the throne in

1028 to his daughter Zoe. She murdered her husband to raise a Paphlagonian to the throne; but this favourite, in a fit of remorse, rejected the guilty splendour. Zoo then made his cousin Michael Calaphates emperor; but his disobedience cost him a throne and his sight. Her last choice was Constantine Monomachus. Theodora, sister of the wicked Zoe, was the last of the Macedonian line, which closed in 1056.

The Comneni (1057-1185).—The wise but infirm Isaac Comnenus was elected to the throne by the army. His retirement led to the appointment of Constantine Ducas, against whom the Seljuk Turks made successful inroads from their capital of Iconium in Asia Minor. His widow Eudocia married a soldier of fortune named Romanus Diogenes, who was made prisoner by the Seljuks. When released, he found his wife in captivity and his throne occupied. He was then blinded.

The Seljuks of Asia and the Normans of South Italy were pressing the empire so hard that Isaac and **Alexius**, nephews of Isaac Comnenus, were placed in command. The latter of these became Emperor in 1081.

It was in his reign (1081-1118) that the sons of Tancred the Norman wrested from the Greeks the last remains of the Exarchate in Italy. One of them, indeed, Robert Guiscard, carried the war across the Ionian Sea, and besieged Durazzo; where, in spite of the brave Varangians—a Norman body-guard of the Byzantine Emperor—the victory rested with the invaders (1081). Great was the dismay of Alexius, when the half-million of wild warriors, bound on the First Crusade, came trooping into Constantinople; and great was his relief, when he saw them safe in Asia, engaged with the Seljuks.

The succeeding Comneni—John II. and Manuel I.—held their own, although the latter was pressed in 1148 by Roger of Sicily, because he tried to thwart the movements of the Second Crusade. The murder of Alexius II. by Andronicus was punished in 1185, when Isaac Angelus dethroned and slew the murderer.

House of Angelo (1185-1204).—Isaac was dethroned and blinded by his brother Alexius; whereupon his son Alexius IV.

sought the aid of the Crusaders, then engaged in warring on behalf of Venice against Dalmatia. The French and the Venetians banded together against Constantinople, to which they sailed. From Scutari the mailed knights crossed the Bosphorus, while the Venetian galleys assailed the entrance of the Golden Horn. Dandolo led the attack, and in eleven days the city fell. The murder of Alexius IV., which the Crusaders pretended to avenge, prepared the way for a second siege. Baldwin, Count of
1204 Flanders, was elected Emperor; and the remainder of
 A.D. the Byzantine territory was parcelled out between Venice and the French—1204.

Latin and Greek Empires.—There was then a divided empire for half a century; the Latin portion centreing in Constantinople, the Grecian in Nicaea. There was also a Comnenian Emperor at Trebisonde, and another in Thessalonica. Matters continued to be troubled and divided until Michael Palaeologus, in 1261, with the aid of the Genoese, took the city of Constantinople in one night.

ENGLAND (827-1399 A.D.).

Early Saxon Kings.—Egbert was the first Saxon King of Wessex, who ruled over all England. The reign of his grandson Alfred (871-901), was the brightest period of Anglo-Saxon history; for the Danes were defeated both at Ethandune and at Ware upon the Lea, and an example of devotion to literature was set by the wise and good King. About half a century after the death of Alfred a priest named Dunstan acquired supreme power in England, making and unmaking kings at his will. He was the great champion of the Benedictine monks in their struggle with the English clergy, as to whether priests could marry; and at a certain assembly in the town-hall of Calne, the fall of part of the floor deprived a number of his enemies of life. In the reign of Ethelred the Unready (978-1017) occurred the foolish massacre of Danes on St. Brice's Day (1002); which roused the wrath of Sweyn, King of Denmark, against England, and led to the estab-

fishment on the English throne of a short-lived Danish dynasty, of which Canute was the chief representative.

In 1041 the Saxons recovered the throne in the person of Edward the Confessor. The most powerful noble in England then was Earl Godwin, between whom and the King a quarrel broke out. The son of Godwin, Harold, was elected King, at a time when England was threatened by two foes—Hardrada, King of Norway, and William, Duke of Normandy. The former was defeated and slain at Stamford Bridge; the latter conquered and slew Harold upon the decisive field of Hastings (1066). This brought the Saxon line to an end. 1066
A.D.

Early Norman Kings.—William of Normandy ruled England under the title of William I., surnamed the Conqueror, for twenty-one years (1066–87). The siege of Exeter and the desolation of Yorkshire and Durham secured his hold upon the island. The fiercest stand in the Saxon cause was made by Hereward, who in his Camp among the marshes of Ely defied the Normans until 1071. Waltheof of Northumbria, last of the great Anglo-Saxons, was executed for engaging in a plot with some discontented Nor-

William II. (1087–1100) was surnamed Rufus. The First Crusade set out in his reign, his gallant but thriftless brother Robert being among those who assumed the Cross.

Then came the reign of **Henry I.** or Beaulere, who in the battle of Tenchebrai deprived Robert of Normandy. The same question of Investitures, which caused hostility between Pope and Emperor, was fought out in England between Anselm and Henry. The encouragement of learning was a favourable feature of this reign (1100–1135).

The reign of **Stephen** (1135–1154) was occupied almost entirely with a civil war, between the King and Matilda, Henry's daughter, whose second husband had been Geoffrey Plantagenet, the boyish Count of Anjou. This war, of which the battle of Lincoln and the siege of Oxford were principal events, was concluded in 1153 by the Treaty of Winchester, which appointed Henry, Matilda's son, to be Stephen's successor.

The Plantagenet Line (1154-1485).—During sixteen years of the reign of **Henry II.** (1156-1189), **Thomas à Becket**, who rose from the rank of a merchant's son to be Chancellor and Primate, was the central figure in English history. A rupture took place between Henry and Becket, owing to the demand of the former that priests taken in crime should be tried before lay tribunals. A great council, held at Clarendon to settle the dispute, failed to do so; and Becket went into exile in France for six years. Returning in 1170, he was murdered at Canterbury by four retainers of Henry.

Another great event of Henry's reign was the Norman invasion of Ireland in 1169, which resulted in a partial conquest of the island.

Richard I. (*Cœur de Lion*) reigned next (1189-1199). Devoted to the Third Crusade and certain wars in the heart of France, he spent in England only a few months out of ten years. During his reign the London citizens rose in riot under Fitzosbert or Longbeard.

The reign of **John** (1199-1216), owing to weakness and folly on the part of the sovereign, was fruitful in good to the nation: The French King stripped him of Normandy and other possessions. He quarrelled with the Pope about the see of Canterbury, and after the imposition of an Interdict, submitted to a disgraceful humiliation at Dover, when he swore to hold England as a Papal fief. These things and his personal oppression roused the barons of England against him. Appearing in arms, they forced him to grant them a Great Charter (*Magna Charta*) of
1215 liberty, which was signed at Runnymede by the Thames
 A.D. in 1215. Louis VIII. of France made an invasion of England, during the course of which John died at Newark.

Henry III., son of John, reigned for fifty-six years (1216-1272). During his minority there was a struggle for the regency between De Burgh and De Roches, of whom the latter was successful. There were some weak invasions of France. But the facts most important in the reign are (1) the confirmation and remodelling of *Magna Charta* in 1225, upon which occasion Henry added his

Parliament for money; and (2), forty years later, the formal foundation of the English House of Commons in 1265.

Simon Montfort put himself at the head of the angry barons. The *Provisions of Oxford* were enacted in 1258; war broke out between the King and his nobles; at Lewes in 1264 Henry was defeated and made captive; and then Sir Simon the Righteous issued writs, which added to the lords, clergy, and knights of the shire, *two burgesses* from every borough. The great career of Montfort closed on the field of Evesham (1265), where he died, defeated by Prince Edward.

The energies of Edward I. (1272-1307) were devoted to the conquest of Wales, which he achieved in 1282, slaying Llewellyn; and the invasion of Scotland, then troubled with a disputed succession. The events of this struggle belong to the history of Scotland. Edward died in 1307, leaving a reputation as the greatest of the Plantagenets.

Edward II. (1307-27) was a weak prince, much under the dominion of vicious favourites. The most notorious of these was Gaveston, against whom the barons combined. He suffered death near Warwick. Before his execution a council of twenty-four peers to manage the King's household had been appointed, under the name of *Ordinances*. Edward's wife was Isabella of France, who excited a movement against him, until he was killed mysteriously in Berkeley Castle. Edward's signal defeat at Bannockburn will be afterwards noticed.

In the reign of Edward III. (1327-77), after a Scottish war, during which was fought the battle of Halidon Hill, disastrous to the Scots, a claim, founded upon the fact that Edward was a grandson of Philip IV., was made upon the crown of France (1347).

The English won a naval victory at Sluys; but a more important triumph at Crecy (1346) afterwards crowned their arms. A successful siege of Calais followed. The Prince of Wales, known as the Black Prince, held Bordeaux as a centre of his power for years; and, in 1356 penetrating the heart of France, won the battle of Poitiers, where King John of France was made

prisoner. The Treaty of Bretigny in 1360 closed the war. The Black Prince then invaded Spain, where he won the field of Navarretta, and laid the foundation of the debt and disease which brought him prematurely to the grave. It was during this reign that John Wycliffe the Reformer was cited for heresy.

Richard II., son of the Black Prince, resembled Edward II. in his nature and his fate. His reign was troubled with discontent among the Commons, which blazed out into an insurrection headed by Wat Tyler. The death of the rebel, who was struck to the ground in Smithfield by Walworth, the Lord Mayor, put an end to the rising. The jealous struggles of the King's uncles formed another source of trouble. In this reign Wycliffe's disciples, called Lollards, began to preach vigorously against the Church of Rome. Richard was deposed by Henry Duke of Hereford, son of John of Gaunt; and in a few months was murdered at Pontefract Castle. With him ended the direct Plantagenet line in 1399.

SCOTLAND (843-1329 A.D.).

The story of Duncan and Macbeth derives from the play of Shakspeare an interest greater than it really has in Scottish history. Duncan was certainly slain; but it was in daylight at Bothgowan—a smith's hut, as some consider the word to mean. His son Malcolm Canmore, escaping to England, got from Edward the Confessor aid, which enabled him to recover his father's throne.

Malcolm III. (1056-93) married a Saxon princess, Margaret, who did much to soften the barbarism of the Scottish people. The shires of Northumberland and Cumberland then formed a district contested fiercely between Scotland and England. During an incursion southward Malcolm was killed at Alnwick.

In the reign of David I. (1124-53) was fought the battle of the Standard. Espousing the cause of Matilda Plantagenet, David met an English army on the Moor of Northallerton, and was signally defeated (1138). David founded many religious

houses, among which were the abbeys of Holyrood and Melrose. In 1153 he was found dead in bed with his hands joined, as if in prayer.

After the reign of Malcolm the Maiden (1153-65), who ceded to England all right over Cumberland and Northumberland, **William the Lion** ascended the Scottish throne. His reign—the longest in Scottish history (1165-1214)—is chiefly notable for his submission to the English King Henry II., whose prisoner he became at Alnwick in 1174. In order to obtain his freedom, he agreed to hold Scotland as a fief of the English Crown, surrendering at the same time five castles—Edinburgh, Stirling, Roxburgh, Jedburgh, and Berwick. Long before William died, Richard I. of England, who was gathering in money on every side to meet the cost of a Crusade, restored the freedom of Scotland for 10,000 marks.

Alexander II. was chiefly engaged in wars with the Celts and the English. His successor, **Alexander III.**, played the same part in repressing Norwegian incursions as English Alfred had played in repelling the Danes. Haco, King of Norway, having passed from the conquest of Bute and Arran to the Ayrshire coast, was defeated at Largs (1263) and deprived of the Hebrides. Alexander curbed the nobles and administered a purer justice to his subjects.

His death left the crown to Margaret his grand-daughter, the Maid of Norway; but she died at Orkney in 1290.

Robert Bruce and **John Baliol**, both descended from David I., then claimed the crown. Edward I. of England, reviving the cancelled vassalage of Scotland, put Baliol on the throne, but soon found a pretext for removing him and invading Scotland. At this crisis **William Wallace** arose. Having successfully stormed several castles, he met the English at Stirling Bridge (1297) and completely routed them. Next year he was 1297 defeated at Falkirk; and was soon afterwards betrayed A.D. into the hands of the English, who hanged him.

The great Bruce, grandson of Baliol's rival, now came into prominence. The sacrilegious blow, by which Bruce laid Canyn his rival bleeding on the altar-steps at Dumfries, cost him many

friends; but he was crowned in 1306. The news excited old Edward to a northward movement; but he died on the Cambrian shore.

The battle of Bannockburn (June 24, 1314) was the central event of Bruce's reign. The English cavalry floundered
1314 into pits dug in front of the Scottish lines; and a band
 A.D. of cutlers, running from the hills, frightened the English into a disgraceful flight.

Edward II. besieged Berwick vainly in 1319: in 1328 an English Parliament acknowledged the independence of Scotland: and in the following year Robert Bruce died.

IRELAND (1000-1318 A.D.).

The great opponent of the Danes in Ireland was King Brian Boru, who fought twenty-five battles, the last and most glorious being at Clontarf in 1014. He was slain in his tent that day. The Danes, however, obtained a footing, particularly on the east shore. Ireland was then divided into five petty kingdoms, which in time of emergency elected one ruler to be supreme.

A Norman knight, Fitz-Stephen, landed at the Bann in Wexford in 1169 to assist Dermot the exiled King of Leinster. Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, following in two years, took Waterford and Dublin. And Henry II. then crossed to secure his conquest. The *Synod of Cashel* laid Ireland partly under English law in 1172.

The Lords of the Pale, a district of the south-east, in which the English settlers lived, opened the first Irish Parliament in 1295. Edward Bruce tried to conquer Ireland; but he was slain in 1318 at Fagher near Dundalk.

STATES RISING INTO STRENGTH.

Spain.—We have noticed the Moslems in the Iberian Peninsula. After some centuries of conflict the fragments of the Visigothic kingdom reunited into new states. Of these Aragon and Castile were chief, the former including Navarre, the latter Leon.

Alphonso VI. of Castile resigned Portugal to his cousin, Henry of Burgundy, in 1095. The Saracens received a decisive blow at Tolosa in 1212; and were soon reduced to the possession of only Granada.

Switzerland during the ninth century belonged to the kingdom of Burgundy, but was afterwards attached to the Romano-Germanic Empire. Among its small, semi-independent Cantons, those round the head of Lake Lucern rose to prominence. One of these, *Schyz*, gave its name to the whole country.

Northern Europe.—The Norsemen appear in history as pirates about the time of Egbert. In *Danish* history Gorm the Old shines out, as ruler of Jutland and the Danish Isles in 863. He was virtually the founder of Denmark. Harold Haarfager of Norway was a contemporary of Alfred. After the death of Canute, who added England to his realm, Sweyn Estritson in 1047 established a new dynasty in Denmark. Of this the most powerful was Waldemar I. (1157–82) and Canute VI., under whom Pomerania, Holstein, and Esthonia were subdued. But in 1227 the defeat of Bornhoved cost Denmark all these new possessions.

The Kings of Norway turned much of their force upon the British Isles, where they came to possess the Hebrides, Man, and even Caulyre. King Olav introduced Christianity into Norway, whence it spread to Iceland, and even to Greenland about 1000 A.D.

This caused a great contention in *Sweden*, where the Pagans of Upsala elected a *Swecker* king in opposition to the *Stenkil* king of the Christians. The latter were soon extirpated.

The great power of Russia was founded in a little nucleus called Novgorod, by Rurik in 862. His daughter-in-law, Olga, established there the Christianity of the Greek Church. But it was Wallimir the Great who, about 1000, planted this creed firmly in Russia.

Prussia.—The fierce *Beransi* having troubled Poland, a military brotherhood, called the *Short-swords*, instituted by the Bishop of Riga in 1201, were sent against them in vain. A

stronger force was then summoned—the crusading order of Teutonic Knights, who from their capital of Thorn waged a fierce and successful war against the native tribes for fifty years. When the conquest was complete, the Order fixed their capital at Marienberg. These soldiers ruled Prussia until 1466.

Poland.—The duchy of Polonia, inhabited by the Sclavonians, expanded into the kingdom of Poland about 1025 under Albert of Prague. For a time its existence was a ceaseless struggle with Germany. Its chief city was Cracow.

Hungary.—Pannonia, conquered by the Magyars from Mount Ural, grew into the kingdom of Hungary. Stephen the Saint taught the nation Christianity about 1000, and organized the state. Their worst foes came from Asia in the person of invading Moguls, who in 1241 reduced the basin of the Theiss to a desert.

THIRD PERIOD OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

FROM 1291 A.D. TO 1453 A.D.

The leading events and features of the Third Period of the Middle Ages consist of,—

1. The brilliance of Italian literature and power, especially at Florence and Rome.
2. The successful struggle of Switzerland against Austria; a contest in which infantry proved victorious over mailed knighthood.
3. The struggle for one hundred years between England and France, resulting in the almost complete expulsion of the former from the Continent.
4. The beginnings of the Reformation, as shown in the lives of Wycliffe, Huss, and Jerome.
5. The Asiatic conquests of Timor the Tartar.
6. The invention of Printing.
7. The fall of the Byzantine Empire.
8. The successful accomplishment of two great voyages—that of Columbus in 1492, opening the West—that of Vasco di Gama in 1498, opening the East, to commerce.

GERMANY (1273-1493).

THE HAPSBURGS AND OTHER EMPERORS.

Rudolf I., who took his name of Hapsburg from the Hawk's Castle on the river Aar in Switzerland, was chosen Emperor in 1273, when he was engaged in the siege of Basle. His dominion extended over the Aargau and other portions of Switzerland. Pope Gregory X. acknowledged him as Emperor, the more readily since Rudolf gave up all jurisdiction over Rome, Ancona, and Spoleto, retaining only the right of investing new bishops. His chief opponent was Ottocar of Bohemia, from whom he wrested Austria, Styria, and Carniola, which he made over to his son Albert, thus founding the dominion of the Austrian Empire. Rudolf ruled Germany wisely with a strong hand, devoting himself to the reduction of robber-nobles, and the encouragement of commercial towns. He died in 1291.

A struggle between Adolf of Nassau, and Albert, Rudolf's son, resulted in 1298 in the success of the latter.

Albert I. was the Duke of Austria under whose oppressive rule the Swiss Cantons made their remarkable rising for independence. The Three Forest Cantons—Schweitz, Uri, and Unterwalden—were those in which the flame broke out. And it centred at first in the case of William Tell. Refusing to bow before the fatal cap of Austria, set on a pole at Altorf, Tell was forced to try his famous shot. And, when he was being carried in chains across the lake, and was bidden to steer the boat in a squall, he contrived to leap ashore. Gesler fell a victim to a bolt from his deadly cross-bow after a time (1308).

When Albert heard of this, he hurried to Switzerland, where he met his death. Having crossed the Reuss in a boat without his guards, he was murdered by his nephew, John of Sualbia (1308).

Death prevented Henry of Luxemburg, the next Emperor, from securing Italy with a firm grasp: and his successor, Louis of Bavaria, who gained the Empire by the victory of Muhlberg

over Frederic of Austria, continued to struggle with the Pope and the King of Naples. The Pontiff used the old weapons of curse and interdict: but six of the German Electors united at Rense (1338) to maintain the cause of Germany against Italy.

The principal event in the reign of **Charles IV.** of Bohemia, who next secured the imperial crown, was the publication at Nuremberg of the *Golden Bull* (1356), which settled the number of Electors and the laws of election to the German Empire. The Seven Electors were:—

1. Archbishop of Mainz.
2. Archbishop of Treves.
3. Archbishop of Cologne.
4. King of Bohemia.
5. Count Palatine of the Rhine.
6. Duke of Saxony.
7. Margrave of Brandenburg.

The reign of Charles lasted for thirty-one years (1347–78).

After a period of thirty-two years, during which Wenceslaus of Bohemia, Frederic of Brunswick, and Rupert of the Rhine reigned in succession, the Empire devolved on **Sigismund King of Hungary** (1410–37), a younger son of Charles IV.

Sigismund underwent reverses of fortune, before he attained to the Empire. He was not popular in Hungary, and a defeat by the Wallachians and Turks at Nicopolis (1396) drove him as an exile to Rhodes, Constantinople, and Venice. When he returned to Hungary, the discontented nobles imprisoned him; but he escaped, defeated his foes, and resumed the crown. He ruled over Bohemia too; and becoming Emperor, secured Moravia, Brandenburg, and Silesia.

The story of **John Huss**, a disciple of our English Wycliffe, casts a dark stain on Sigismund. As rector of the university of Prague, this man preached against the Pope, purgatory, and indulgences. The Archbishop of Prague tried in vain to silence him. Excommunication drove him from Prague, but he afterwards returned bolder than ever. He was then summoned to attend the Council of Constance; to which he went, armed with

a safe-conduct from Sigismund. There he was arrested and burned. Jerome his disciple soon shared his fate. Sigismund paid dearly for his treachery, for a war flamed up in all Bohemia, where Zisca led the Hussite armies and defeated the imperial troops in many battles. Peace was not concluded until 1437, when with much difficulty the Council of Basel effected a compromise. Procopius led the Hussites after the death of Zisca.

Sigismund visited France and England. His death in 1437 caused the Empire to pass to the Austrian line.

AUSTRIAN EMPERORS FROM 1437.

The short reign of Albert II. was followed by the long reign of his cousin Frederic III. (1440-1493), who had been Duke of Styria. This prince, who was more devoted to the study of botany and alchemy than to the toils of empire, had views so ambitious that he inscribed on his palaces the vowels, A. E. I. O. U.; for *Austria est imperare orbi universo*. But his powers fell short of his plans. He managed so badly that he was kept in constant trouble by wars in Hungary and Bohemia, and intestine feuds throughout the Empire. But he succeeded in concluding one of the most important marriages of mediæval history, when he secured Mary of Burgundy, the rich heiress of Charles the Bold, as a wife for his son Maximilian (1477). It is notable also that the invention of printing took place in Germany and Holland during this reign. In 1486 Maximilian was made King of the Romans.

SWITZERLAND (1264-1481).

The Hapsburg family inherited the possessions of Kyburg in 1264, and soon afterwards, by the election of Rudolf to the Empire, as already narrated, gained ascendancy in Europe.

Duke Albert's oppression of the Swiss, and the resistance of Tell have been spoken of. This was only a beginning. Duke

Leopold, Albert's son, went into Switzerland in 1315 to punish the rebels; but he was caught with his army in the narrow pass of Morgarten, and utterly defeated by the mountaineers. Then was formed a league, which was a revival of the old coalition of Uri, Schwitz, and Unterwalden; and soon after 1350 the list of the Eight Cantons was complete.

There was, however, another battle to be fought: it took place at Sempach in 1386, when Arnold of Winkelried devoted his life to his country. The victory of Nefels followed; and in 1393 the Sempach Convention united more firmly the cantons, now free from the Austrian yoke.

In the following century Switzerland gathered strength; but it was severely tested in 1436 by a civil war, in which the cantons allied themselves against Zurich. The siege of Zurich was formed; and then the French came to the aid of the citizens. In 1452 the Austrians lost their hold on Switzerland, which was soon afterwards engaged in a fierce struggle with Charles the Bold of Burgundy. In this contest the Swiss shepherds established their character as soldiers, especially in the battles of Granson and Morat (1476), in both of which Charles was defeated. A heap of bones, covered with grass, long continued to mark the scene of the latter. The Duke of Burgundy fought his last field in a winter-storm at Nancy in 1477, when the Swiss were again victors. His body was found among the trampled and bloody snow. Henceforth Burgundy was powerless either against France or Switzerland.

The Convention of Stanz admitted Soleure and Freiburg to the Helvetic Union.

ITALY (1305-1500).

The history of Italy divides itself into several branches, which must be taken in succession, including Milan, Tuscany, Genoa, Savoy, Venice, the Papacy, Naples, and Sicily.

Milan, which was the leading republic city in central Lombardy, was ruled for one hundred and fifty-nine years (1288-1447)

by a family named *Visconti*, of which the founder was Matteo. Having wrested the power from the hands of the Della Torre faction, he incurred the wrath of Pope John XXII., by appointing his son Giovanni to the see of Milan. The bull of excommunication was recalled by another Pontiff; but it finally broke the spirit of Matteo, who died in 1341.

Francis *Sforza*, a soldier of fortune, who married Bianca the daughter of the last of the *Visconti*, made himself master of Milan in 1450. The *Sforzas* ruled this capital of Lombardy for half a century, soon after which it became an Austrian possession. Ludovico Sforza, surnamed the Moor from his dark complexion, having a quarrel with Ferdinand of Naples, invited the French to his aid, and Charles VIII. invaded Naples. But Ludovico soon saw the necessity of driving out the foreign soldiers. Louis XII. of France took Milan in 1499; but a revolution restored the dukedom to Ludovico. The defection of his Swiss guards placed *Il Moro* in a French prison, where he died.

In Tuscany Florence and Pisa were the centres of power and splendour at this time. Pisa equipped a fleet, and embarked in war with Genoa, until the naval engagement off Meloria in 1264 crippled her power, and rendered her an easy prey to Florence.

Florence fell in 1250 under a democratic magistracy called the *Signoria*. The Guelf faction then split into the *Bianchi* and the *Neri*, or White and Black. Walter Brienne, Duke of Athens, a leader of Free Lances, seized the city in 1342. But out of all change and trouble sprang the illustrious house of *Medici*.

The first of these to rule the state, though under no distinct name of authority, was Cosmo di Medici, son of Giovanni, the money-changer. He died in 1464, honoured with the title of "Father of his country."

Lorenzo, frustrating a conspiracy of the Pazzi, then became ruler of Florence, in room of his grandfather. A lyric poet and student of Plato, Lorenzo encouraged art and letters. He spent much money and care in the collection of Eastern MSS.; and afforded aid and refuge to the scholars of Constantinople scattered by the fall of that learned city. In many ways he earned his

name of the *Magnificent*. A few years before his death, which happened in 1492, the Italian reformer Savonarola, afterwards burned for heresy, began to preach at Florence.

Lorenzo's second son Giovanni transferred the family splendour to Rome, when he became Pope as Leo X. The Florentine republic came to an end in 1537, when one of the Medici was made Duke.

Genoa.—After having crushed Pisa as a rival by sea, Genoa came into collision with Venice. This was partly caused by the favour shown to the Genoese by the Byzantine Empire. Owing to aid given in the wresting of Constantinople from the Latins, Michael Palæologus permitted the Genoese to occupy the suburb of Pera, whence they extended their trade into the Black Sea. Genoa at one time (1378) was so near victory that her ships were in the lagoons of Venice, and her soldiers camped upon the islet of Chioggia. But Venice made a desperate effort, besieged the island, and forced the Genoese to an ignominious surrender.

At home Genoa was troubled with Guelph and Ghibelline feuds, in which the Fieschi on the one side and the Doria on the other were the principal contending families. The latter have given more than one great name to Italian history. The defeat at Chioggia and the fall of Constantinople were among the chief causes of the decline of power in Genoa. The influence of Milan prevailed there for a long time.

Venice.—The rise of Venice has been already noticed. Her golden period of commerce was now past: and that darkly romantic time had come, when the Council of Ten (1325) and the still more terrible and mysterious Three (1454) held the threads of life and death in Venice. The dagger—the poisoned flower or ring—the close gondola—the still deep canal were all at hand as the instruments of secret execution wrought upon those whose names were branded with suspicion.

Marino Faliero, who was beheaded in 1355 for conspiracy against the State; and Francesco Foscarì, under whom Lombardy was conquered, but who died an exile, were among the great Doges of this period.

Venice did good service to Europe by defeating the Turkish fleets in the Mediterranean. Her decline may be dated from the voyage of Vasco (1498) and the League of Cambray (1508).

Papal Power.—For seventy-two years (1305–77) the Popes dwelt at Avignon in the south of France. Rome was meanwhile convulsed with internal feuds among great families such as the Colonnas, the Savelli, and the Orsini. Out of these struggles arose Rienzi, the last of the Tribunes.

This scholar, a man of humble birth but a friend of Petrarch the poet, took advantage of Stephen Colonna's absence to seize the chief power in Rome. The nobles being expelled, he ruled for about seven months, until his vanity estranged the citizens, and, when a time of peril came, none gathered to his side. Escaping from Rome, he died in exile. His revolution occupied the remainder of 1347.

The Papal exile, beginning with Clement V., ended with Gregory XI.

There was then a schism in the Papacy for thirty-nine years (1378–1417), during which rival Popes dwelt at Rome and at Avignon.

The fifteenth century is noted for its ecclesiastical councils. The Council of Pisa (1409), by deposing the two existing Popes in favour of a third, made the schism worse; for none of them would yield, and there were therefore for a time *three* Popes. The Council of Constance reduced the number to one by electing Martin V. There were then several temporary assemblies in various places, until at Basle a council sat (1433–49), which abolished the tax called *annates*, and the reservation of bishoprics, two impositions of the grasping Pontiff, John XXII. A tendency to oppose Papal exactions was then rife in all Europe, and the Popes were forced to confine their interference in political matters henceforth to the Italian peninsula.

The *Borgia*s, a Spanish family, became at this time prominent in the history of Rome. The father Alfonso was made Pope in 1492 as Calixtus III. His second son Caesar was a profligate and daring man, who flung aside the cardinal's robe to be a leader

of mercenaries, and who aimed, with the assistance of the Pope at making himself master of Romagna and Umbria. The death by poison of Alexander VI. in 1503 destroyed his hopes, and he died as a volunteer in Spain. His sister Lucrezia Borgia was not the very wicked woman that the French drama represents her as having been.

Under Julius II. St. Peter's Church was begun, and the League of Cambray was formed in 1508 against Venice. His successor Leo X., a learned and polished member of the Medici family, was Pope when Luther began his work of Reformation.

Naples and Sicily.—These states continued separate from about the time of the Sicilian Vespers (1282), until they were united in 1435 under Alfonso V. of Aragon. But Sicily separated again in 1458. The conquest of Naples by Charles VIII. has been already referred to but there was another claimant of Naples in the person of Ferdinand the Catholic of Aragon, who had inherited Sicily. The latter succeeded in 1504 in expelling the French; and until 1700 Naples and Sicily were dependencies of Spain.

FRANCE (1328-1483).

HOUSE OF VALOIS (1323-1589).

The House of Valois, represented by Philip VI., were scarcely settled on the throne of France, when Edward III. put in his claim as a rival for the crown. That claim was founded on his mother's rights as a daughter of Philip le Bel. The war between France and England that thus arose is called the *Hundred Years' War*, though it lasted longer (1337-1453). A naval victory at Sluys in 1340, and, yet more decisive, that victory at Crécy, won chiefly by the English archers, in 1346, gave the English power predominance. The capture of Calais in 1347 afforded to the islanders a firm footing in France. The ravages of the Black Plague then caused war to languish for a time.

The struggle centred for a time in Southern France, until John the next King was taken prisoner at Poitiers, where the French

suffered a great defeat at the hands of the Black Prince in 1356. The captive monarch was conducted with much ceremony to London, where he lived in the Savoy. Edward concluded the Treaty of Bretigni with France in 1360, but John found his people so turbulent that he left them to the Dauphin and returned to his prison, where he died in 1364.

Charles V. (1364–80), who succeeded John, was surnamed the Wise. He had to aid him against the English the sword of Bertrand du Guesclin, one of the greatest soldiers France has produced. During this reign the Black Prince crossed the Pyrenees to fight for Pedro of Castile, to the aid of whose brother Du Guesclin had come. The decisive battle was at Navarretta (1367), where the French soldier was taken prisoner. Afterwards ransomed, Du Guesclin was made Constable of France, and fought with such vigour that in a little while, of all Bretagne, Brest alone remained under English power. Du Guesclin and the King both died in 1380—events which postponed for a time the fall of the English Empire in France.

Charles VI. (1380–1422) being a boy of thirteen at his father's death, his three uncles, the Dukes of Anjou, Berri, and Burgundy, struggled for ascendancy. The insanity of the King left the contest ultimately between Burgundy and Orleans, the brother of Charles. The assassination of Orleans left the field seemingly clear, but his father-in-law Armagnac headed the Orleans party, which took his name. Matters grew worse, until the massacre of the Armagnacs brought a lull of desolation to the troubled land.

France was invaded in this reign by Henry V. of England, who won the glorious field of Agincourt (1415), and by the conquest of Rouen gained possession of Normandy. The Treaty of Troyes (1420) arranged that Henry should succeed Charles on the French throne, and he continued the war against the Dauphin for two years more. Charles died in 1422.

Charles VII. (1422–61) at the age of twenty came to a throne which seemed scarcely worth the having. The infant Henry of England had been already crowned King of France. Bedford, the English Regent, won the great battle of Verneuil, and the

territory of the French King shrank so much that there was little mockery in calling him, as he was called, "King of Bourges." The struggle between France and England at last centred in Orleans, to which Salisbury and Talbot with an English host laid siege. The siege became a blockade; and the hopes of France, wasted almost to despair, were saved by a peasant-girl, the famous Joan of Arc, who, riding on a black horse with a holy banner in her hands, led a strong reinforcement into the city.

She then fulfilled her destiny by crowning Charles at **1429 Rheims (1429)**. This turned the tide. Joan, made prisoner by the English, was burned at Rouen (1431); but the work she inaugurated went on steadily to success. Burgundy became reconciled to the King—he had previously supported the English—and Charles ruled in reality after 1437. This monarch created a standing army, and turned it to so good account, that, in spite of all that valiant John Talbot could do, Bordeaux fell in 1453, leaving England no footing in France except Calais. The rebellion and wickedness of the Dauphin embittered the later life of Charles, who died in 1461.

Louis XI. (1461–83) was a strange mixture of craft, cruelty, and superstition. He had not been long on the throne until the nobles, perceiving that the monarchy was fast verging to a despotism, took up arms against him in the *War of the Public Good* (1465). The ruling spirit of this league was Charles the Bold, Count of Charolais, afterwards Duke of Burgundy. The war ended by the concession on the King's part of all the points in dispute, especially those regarding remission of taxes. An invasion of France by Edward IV. of England was staved off by Louis, who bribed so skilfully that he obtained the Treaty of Pecquigny. Louis had removed previous foes by poison: he was now strong enough for a public revenge; and the head of the Constable St. Pol, who had been among the rebel nobles, fell under the headsman's sword at Paris in 1475. How the Swiss rose against the Duke of Burgundy and defeated him at Granson and Morat; and how, to the great joy of Louis, Charles the Bold lost his life at Nancy (1477), have been already narrated.

The hand of Mary of Burgundy, the heiress of Charles, was a great prize, for besides Burgundy she ruled all Flanders and the Low Countries. Louis resolved to marry her to the Dauphin, proposing to take possession at once in his son's name of her territories. But she preferred Maximilian, the Emperor's son, to whom she was married in 1477. After this Louis 1477 prepared to try his dead vassal, Charles of Burgundy, A.D. for treason, for the purpose of confiscating his estates. The trial was abandoned; but Maximilian took up arms. The battle of Guinegate decided nothing, but taught Louis the necessity of training a large infantry force for war.

As Louis grew old, his superstition and cruelty increased. He used to wear little lead images of saints in his hat, and would often take them out and implore them with fervent prayers. In 1478 he caused the Duke of Nemours to be beheaded, and under the lower planks of the scaffold he placed the five children of the sufferer, that the dripping of their father's blood upon their heads might teach them the duty of submission to a King.

Louis XI. died in 1483. His reign is a turning point in French history, marking the close of the Middle Ages.

ENGLAND (1399-1485).

The history of England under the rival Houses of Lancaster and York, into which the Plantagenet family divided in 1399, is included in the present period.

Henry IV. (1399-1413) was the first Lancastrian King. He was the son of John of Gaunt, third son of Edward III. His reign was troubled with plots and revolts, of which the most formidable was the alliance between the Percys, a great Northumbrian family, and Owen Glendower, a gentleman of Wales, whose learning caused men to believe in his complicity with Satan. Hotspur, the son of Northumberland, was slain in the battle of Shrewsbury, in which Henry broke the power of the rebels (1403). In this reign a persecution arose against the *Lollards*, or disciples of

Wycliffe, one of whom, named Sawtre, a London clergyman, was burned. Henry died in 1413.

Henry V. (1413-22), the "Prince Hal" of Shakspeare, disappointed all his boon companions by turning wise and steady after his accession. He continued the Lollard persecution, committing to the flames a leader of the sect known as Sir John Oldecastle, or the Lord of Cobham. But his campaigns in France represent the central interest of his reign.

Sailing from Southampton in 1415, he took the fortress of Harfleur at the mouth of the Seine, and then marched along the coast towards Calais. The Somme was guarded by the French, but he crossed it at a ford high up, and won the battle of Agincourt. He then returned to England. In 1419 he took Rouen, which made him master of Normandy; and the Treaty of Troyes was then concluded, appointing Henry King of France in succession to Charles. The Dauphin kept up a show of hostility with some aid from Scotland; but the fall of Meaux destroyed all his hopes of resisting Henry. In this hour of victory the English King died.

Henry VI. (1422-61) was a child not yet a year old. England was placed under Humphrey of Gloucester, while the great Duke of Bedford governed the English possessions in France. So long as the latter lived, the English power remained unbroken; and the victories of Crevant and Verneuil crippled the resources of the Dauphin, who claimed to be Charles VIII. It was determined to cross the Loire, and as a preparatory step, the English besieged Orleans (1428). Then appeared that strange peasant girl, a native of Domremi in Lorraine, who is known as Joan of Arc or *La Pucelle*. In white armour, on a black steed, she entered the besieged city during a storm, and in nine days drove the English from its walls (1429). She fulfilled the second part of the mission she believed to be divine by causing Charles to be crowned at Rheims. Taken prisoner at Compiègne, she was imprisoned for a year, and in 1431 was burned at Rouen. The English rule in France thenceforth grew weak. The Treaty of Arras (1435) did not succeed in procuring peace. The death of Bedford left England almost without a leader in France; and in

a few years, as has been already said, the English possessions had dwindled to the single town of Calais.

At home, during the reign of Henry, who was a weak-minded prince, there were many plots preceding the great Civil War. The rebellion of Jack Cade, who with a rabble held London for a few days, ended in the death of the leader. But this was only a beginning of troubles. In 1455 that great 1455 civil war, known as the Wars of the Roses, from the op- A.D. posing sides wearing white and red roses as emblems, began at St Albans. It arose from the Duke of York, who had been Protector during the insanity of the King, disliking to let go his power. The Lancasters, as represented by Henry, were descended from John of Gaunt, third son—the York family, as represented by Richard, Duke of York, from the fourth son of Edward III. After some battles had taken place, the great controlling spirits on the contending sides came to be Margaret of Anjou, the wife of the Lancastrian King, and that great Earl of Warwick, known to history as the King-maker. Six years of war resulted in the accession of Edward IV., son of Richard, Duke of York.

HOUSE OF YORK

Edward IV. (1461–83).—The first years of Edward's reign were spent in meeting the efforts of Margaret, who was joined in 1466 by Warwick. But at Barnet in 1471 this great soldier was killed; and the field of Tewkesbury shattered all Margaret's hopes a few weeks later. The secret murder of Henry in the Tower and the open murder of his son Edward left the crown in the hands of the White Roses. During these troubles William Caxton, an English mercer, brought the art of printing into England (1474). How Louis XI. cajoled Edward into the Treaty of Picquigny has been already noticed.

Edward V. (April to June, 1483).—Seized at Stony-Stratford after his father's death, young Edward was placed in the Tower, while his crafty uncle, Richard of Gloucester, schemed his way to the throne. Lords Hastings and Rivers, friends of the youthful King, were removed by execution.

Richard III. (1483-85).—While Richard was on his way to York, making a royal progress through the land, the rumour spread that young Edward and his little brother had been murdered in the Tower. The story forms a mysterious page in English history. If it was true, an avenger soon appeared in the person of a Lancastrian Earl of Richmond, who in France prepared for the invasion of England. The Duke of Buckingham, to whose efforts on his behalf Richard mainly owed the crown, rebelled against the King, but was taken and executed. Then came the last scene. Richmond landed at Milford Haven: Richard took his post with a treacherous army in the centre of his kingdom. On Bosworth Field in Leicestershire they met; **1485** and a skirmish took place, which closed in a rush by **A.D.** Richard in his despair upon the guards that encircled Henry. The vain brave effort ended in his death. With him ended, in 1485, the Yorkist branch of the Plantagenet Dynasty in England; and the same date may be fixed as closing the History of the Middle Ages in this country.

SCOTLAND (1329-1487).

David II. (1329-70).—Robert Bruce left a son aged six to succeed him. During the minority Edward III. of England attempted to make Edward Baliol King of Scotland; and defeated the Scots at Halidon Hill (1333). But they adopted a plan of laying waste the country, which baffled his attacks, and his designs on France turned his energies in another direction. While Edward was in France, in 1346, the year of Crecy, David invaded England, and was met, about a mile from Durham, on the field of Nevil's Cross, by Queen Philippa, and was made prisoner. Ransomed after eleven years, he returned to his native land to intrigue with the English against its interests. He died in 1370.

THE STUART DYNASTY.

Robert II. (1370-90) was the first Stuart King of Scotland. This celebrated but hapless family took its name from the fact

that Marjorie Bruce married Walter the Steward of Scotland. Robert's reign was unmarked by any great event. The turbulent nobles, regardless of rule or law, engaged in private wars. During this reign the battle of Otterburne (1388), depicted with ~~were~~ fictitious incidents in the ballad of Chevy Chase, was fought. It was a contest between the Percys and the Douglasses.

Robert III. (1390-1406) was really called John, but changed his name, lest it might prove a bad omen. He was so indolent that he left the government chiefly in the hands of his brother, whom he made Duke of Albany. A quarrel arose between this crafty man and his nephew, Robert's eldest son, the Duke of Rothesay. The young prince was found dead in Falkland, starved, it is said, by his uncle; through fear of whom King Robert sent his surviving son James, aged twelve, away in a ship bound for France. Off Norfolk the ship was taken, and the prince was carried a prisoner to England. This broke the King's heart (1406).

James I. (1406-37) was a poet—author of the "King's Quhair." While he continued for nineteen years in custody in England, chiefly at Windsor, Albany was for the most part Regent of Scotland. During this time the seeds of Protestantism began to be sown in the northern kingdom; and John Resby a disciple of Wycliffe, was burned at Perth for preaching. In 1411 a fierce battle was fought at Harlaw between the Earl of Mar and the Lord of the Isles, resulting in the defeat of the Highlanders, who had mustered under the banner of the former chieftain. The death of Albany in 1419 allowed the nobles to grow more disorderly; so that when James was released in 1424 he had a hard task before him. He executed some of the lawless nobles; established the Parliament on a better foundation; made good laws; and kept the wild Highlanders in check by timely severity. He was slain at Perth by conspirators in 1437.

James II. (1437-60), surnamed of the Fiery Face, was handed from one noble to another during his minority; but of all the nobles the Douglasses were most powerful. He met this ascendancy in a treacherous way by inviting the Earl of Douglas to dinner at Edinburgh, and then causing him to be beheaded.

This device was repeated at Stirling some years later, when another Douglas fell after dinner under the dagger of the King himself. James II. was killed in 1460 by the bursting of a cannon, while he was directing the siege of Roxburgh Castle, a fortress which had been long in the hands of the English.

James III. (1460-88), also a minor, fell into the hands of the Boyds, who allowed him to grow into a dissolute and idle man, taking pleasure in the society of low favourites. The chief of these was a builder, named Cochrane, whom he made Earl of Mar. When the arrogance of this man grew intolerable, the nobles, then assembled in arms to fight with England, seized and hanged him at Lauder Bridge, after which they kept the King in prison for a time. Some time later, they proclaimed Prince James King, and defeated the father near Bannockburn. While galloping from the field, James fell from his horse, and, while lying stunned in a mill, was stabbed to death by a man pretending to be a priest.

James IV. (1488-1513) was a gay and politic monarch, who wisely kept on good terms with his nobility. He created a Scottish navy, of which Sir Andrew Wood of Largo was the great ornament. James IV. was united in marriage to Margaret Tudor, daughter of Henry VII. of England. This wedding, which took place at Lamberton on the Border in 1502, is notable as being the event on which hinged afterwards the destinies of the Scottish crown in relation to England.

In this reign Walter Chapman introduced printing into Scotland. A quarrel between England and Scotland resulted in an invasion of England by a Scottish army. James pitched

1513 his camp on Flodden, a hill jutting from the Cheviots.

A.D. Surrey, who commanded the English host, made a movement which cut off the retreat of James. Setting fire to their camp, the Scots rushed on in the smoke, but were finally broken, with the loss of their King and the flower of the nation.

James V. (1513-42) was the "King of the Commons," the Fitz-James of Scott's poetic romance. Again the curse of a

royal minority troubled Scotland. But in 1524 James, a lad of sixteen, who had been trained under the care of the poet, Sir David Lindsay, escaped from Falkland, where the Douglas family kept him in ward, and reached Stirling. King James re-ordered the Border—always a troublesome region—to order, by the execution of Johnnie Armstrong and other freebooters. He also established the Court of Session. The beginnings of the actual Reformation belong to this reign, in which Patrick Hamilton, an abbot of noble blood, was burned at St. Andrews (1528) for his Protestantism. "His smoke infected all it blew on;" and the poet Lindsay added his satiric verses to the influences and aids of the Reformation. James of Scotland, whose second wife was Mary of Guise, refused to meet Henry VIII. of England at York; and war began between the potentates. Oliver Sinclair commanded the Scots on the Border; but the army disliked this royal favourite, and three hundred English horse under Dacre and Musgrave scattered an army of ten thousand men. This was the rout of "Solway Moss." It broke the heart of James V., who died at Falkland of wasting fever, leaving his crown to a little "lass," aged not many days.

Mary (1542-67).—The Regency was now contested between Cardinal Beaton and the Earl of Arran, of whom the latter gained the prize. But both united to resist Protestantism, which was supported, even to the length of warlike invasion, by England. John Knox and George Wishart then appeared as preachers of the Reformation. The latter was burned at St. Andrews in 1546 in view of Cardinal Beaton, who was murdered, three months later, by conspirators in the castle of the same old city. The story of John Knox was a most changeful tale. After lifting a bold voice in St. Andrews, he was made prisoner by a French armament, and condemned to the galleys, in which he toiled at the oar for two years.

Meanwhile, Henry of England had been pushing on a marriage treaty between his son Edward and Mary, the young Scottish Queen. The Scots, in the succeeding English reign, were so averse to the match, that the Regent Somerset sent into Scotland

an army, which routed the Scots at Pinkie, but did not succeed in bringing the marriage affair to a successful termination.

Every month advanced the Protestant cause in Scotland. Knox came home from Geneva, filled with a zeal which intercourse with Calvin had sharpened. The young Queen, as the wife of the French Dauphin, was learning to cling to the Catholic faith. In 1561, her husband being dead, she came back to Scotland, to spend seven years of trouble and wretchedness. She married Lord Darnley, with whom she did not agree well, and at one time she showed special favour to a musician, named Rizzio. Him certain men slew in Holyrood, having dragged him from the Queen's supper-table. The Earl of Bothwell seems to have acted out the Queen's revenge; for shortly afterwards Darnley was killed, a lonely house near Edinburgh in which he then resided being blown up. Three months later, Mary married Bothwell. This roused the nobles to arms; and Mary surrendered at Carberry Hill, only to be placed in confinement at Lochleven. Escaping thence, after eleven months' captivity, she raised an army and met the Regent Moray at Langside. Being utterly defeated there, she fled to England; and, after being detained by Elizabeth in various prisons for nineteen years, was beheaded at Fotheringhay in 1587.

James VI. (1567–1603) was only a year old when his hapless mother abdicated the throne. The country prospered under the Regency of Moray; but in 1570 he was shot in the street of Linlithgow by Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh. Lennox, Mar, and Morton then governed the unhappy land; until James, growing up under the tuition of George Buchanan, was old enough to reign. In 1572 John Knox, to whom most of all Scotland owed her Protestantism, died. In 1600 occurred that strange transaction known as the Gowrie Conspiracy. James reached Gowrie House in Perth, and dined there. After dinner the Earl of Gowrie and his brother were killed—in self-defence, for they meant to murder him, the King said. On the death of Elizabeth the Stuarts ascended the English throne, and the history of Scotland merges in that of Great Britain.

IRELAND.

The history of Ireland during this period presents only rebellion on the part of the natives, and repression on the part of the English. In 1495 *Poyning's Law* gave the English Sovereign complete control over the Parliament of Ireland. Henry VIII. raised Ireland to the rank of a kingdom in 1541. But the actual conquest of Ireland was not completed until the reign of Elizabeth, when in both south and north the rebellious chiefs were defeated. Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, the most formidable of these, was finally crushed in 1602 by Lord Mountjoy.

SPAIN (1212-1492).

After the battle of Tolosa in 1212, the Mohammedans declined in power, and two kingdoms—Castile and Aragon—grew great steadily. Castile occupied the centre of the peninsula, and under Ferdinand III. absorbed Leon, Estremadura, and Murcia. The reign of Alfonso X. was distinguished for advance in science and law, but was troubled with conspiracies. Greater trouble convulsed the realm under Peter the Cruel, a contemporary of Du Guesclin and the Black Prince. Henry, a brother of Peter, having seized the throne, by means of aid from France, Peter offered Biscay as a bribe to the Black Prince, who invaded Spain, won the great victory of Navarretta, and restored the deposed tyrant. On the retirement of the English prince, however, Henry slew Peter.

The smaller kingdom of Aragon owed much to James I. (1213-1276), who conquered Valencia and the Balearic Isles. Sicily, Naples, and Sardinia also became appendages of this realm. Disputes for the crown produced great troubles; but at last it passed to Ferdinand the Catholic, who, in 1469, had been married to Isabella of Castile.

This union of the crowns of Aragon and Castile, which took place in 1479, may be regarded as the beginning of the greatness of Spain.

These two great monarchs set themselves to perform the task that lay before them—the uprooting of the Moorish power in Spain.

The war of Granada began in 1481 by the surprise of Zahara. The sack of Alhama, regarded as the key of Granada, occurred in the following year. Malaga and Baza fell; and in 1491 Ferdinand pitched his camp by Granada. Famine at last forced the gates, and on the second day of 1492 the keys of the Alhambra were surrendered.

This great year, 1492, was further signalized by the discovery of America by Columbus, an Italian mariner, to whom
1492 the Spanish Queen Isabella gave the use of three ships.
A.D. The expedition sailed from Palos, and in less than three months saw the low green shore of Guanahani, or San Salvador, one of the Bahamas.

Navarre, lying close to France, had come by various marriages to belong to such great French houses as Evreux, Foix, Albret; but the Kings of Aragon contrived to lay their hands on a great portion of the territory.

PORTUGAL.

The kingdom of Portugal was an off-shoot from that of Castile. In 1095 Alfonso VI. of Castile made over this maritime district to his son-in-law, Henry of Burgundy, whose son Alfonso assumed the title of King in 1139. For many years there was a fierce contest with Castile. The Pope gave a weighty decision in favour of Portugal possessing a separate regal dignity. In 1290 the University of Lisbon was founded. The kings had much trouble in checking the power of the Church at this time.

Beatrice of Portugal being married to John I. of Castile, the crown of Portugal seemed in danger of returning again to the latter power. But a revolution, excited chiefly by John, Grand Master of Avis, overturned the Castilian hopes; and the battle of Aljubarrotto (1385), in which the Castilians were signally defeated, confirmed the crown to the Master of Avis.

Then began an era of discovery, which much advanced the maritime power of Portugal, and by opening the command of the sea saved her from the extinction that must otherwise have been the result of her vicinity to a neighbour so powerful as Spain. The coast of Africa was traced, chiefly under the direction of John's son, Prince Henry the Mariner. Madeira and the Azores were seized for Portugal. And under John II. (1481-95) Diaz, a Portuguese captain, caught sight, in 1486, of that fatal Cape, whose storms baffled his attempts to sail past it, and to which on his return, he gave, at the King's suggestion, the name "Cape of Good Hope." The "good hope" was realized by Vasco de Gama, who doubled the Cape in 1498, and opened a sea-route to India. This voyage and that of Columbus, six years earlier, revolutionized the history of commerce and of the world.

SCANDINAVIA.

The stream of history in Denmark, Norway, and Sweden runs in three separate currents until the close of the fourteenth century.

From the proximity of the countries the history of Norway touched that of Scotland at certain points. The "Maid of Norway" and the "Battle of Largs" have been already noticed.

Margaret, daughter of Waldemar III. of Denmark, married Haco of Norway in 1363. Margaret's son, Olav, who had been recognized King of Denmark, and her husband Haco, having both died, she became Sovereign over the two countries. But this did not content the ambition of the "Semiramis of the North." There was a party in Sweden unfriendly to Albert of Mecklenburg, whom others had invited to the crown. Seizing this opportunity, Margaret made war on Albert, whom she took prisoner. The price of his release, after seven years of captivity, was arranged to be the formal recognition of Margaret as Sovereign of Sweden.

In 1397 the Estates of the three kingdoms assembled at Calmar

in Sweden, where was framed the celebrated *Union of Calmar*, constituting the triple monarchy elective.

The union did not last long. On the death of Margaret in 1411, her grand-nephew Erik became King, but was expelled in 1439 in favour of Christopher of Bavaria.

The House of Oldenburg, in the person of Christian I., Count of Oldenburg, now (1448) obtained the Danish throne. This prince acquired Holstein and Schleswig by inheritance from his mother. In Norway he was acknowledged King; but the Swedes under Karl Knutson, and Sten Sture, Administrators, maintained a desultory independence for a time.

POLAND.

The ancient dynasty of Polish Kings—the *Piasti*, who had ruled the rich corn-land for five hundred years, terminated with the reign of Casimir the Great (1333–70).

This prince was the son of a great warrior, Vladislav II., who worsted the Teutonic Knights in the battle of Plowcé in 1331; and the son well upheld the father's fame, though in a more peaceful way. Making concessions to Bohemia and the Teutonic Order for the sake of securing peace, he devoted himself to the improvement of agriculture. The angry nobles, curbed from oppression by his strong hand, nicknamed him *The Peasant King*. To him Poland owed its earliest code of laws.

Louis of Hungary succeeded Casimir, but quite neglected Poland. His daughter married Jagello, Duke of Lithuania, who became after baptism, for he was a pagan, King Vladislav. Under his rule was fought in 1410 the battle of Tannenberg, which broke the power of the Teutonic Order.

Vladislav III., also elected King of Hungary, fell in the battle of Varna with the Turks in 1444.

Casimir of Lithuania was then made King. A revolt of the Prussian provinces led to a war with the Teutonic Knights, which closed in 1466 by the Peace of Thorn assigning a portion of Prussia to Poland. Before the long reign of Casimir closed

in 1492, an arrangement was made to divide Poland into electoral districts, each of which returned a representative to an assembly, which was to deliberate independently of senate or nobles. Vladislav, son of Casimir, became King of Hungary and Bohemia

PRUSSIA.

The Knights of the Teutonic Order, who conquered Prussia between 1231 and 1283, gradually extended their sway over Livonia and Courland. Prosperity engendered luxury, and luxury begot vice. The aid of the Poles was called in to repress the tyranny of the Order. The battle of Tannenberg, in which the Knights suffered a signal defeat (1410), was a heavy blow, from which they never recovered.

In 1511 Albert of Brandenburg was Grand Master of the Order. Under him the struggle with Poland was continued, until about 1525, when Eastern Prussia was assigned to this prince as an hereditary ducal fief of Poland.

HUNGARY.

During the closing centuries of the Middle Ages, Hungary was ruled by various sovereigns, amongst whom Charles Robert of Naples, Louis the Great, Sigismund of Bohemia, and greatest of all, Matthias Corvinus, were prominent. The war with Naples led the Hungarians to become more civilized, and amongst other improvements the cultivation of the vine was introduced at Tokay. Louis united in his person the monarchies of Hungary and Poland.

Sigismund (1386-1437) was defeated by the Turks at Nicopolis in 1396. It may here be noticed that Europe owed much at this and later times to the Hungarians, who manned the banks of the Danube and repelled the incessant attempts of the Turks to penetrate Central Europe. What the Pyrenees and the Franks had done at an earlier date to restrict the Moslems to the Spanish

peninsula, whence they were at last expelled, this gallant nation and this broad current did for Europe now.

Matthias Corvinus, son of John Huniades, a distinguished general, who was victorious over the Turks at Belgrade, was the greatest King of Hungary. His conquests extended towards the Black Sea and the Adriatic. He gained possession of Vienna for a time (1485).

The feeble Vladislav permitted the Austrians to secure a firm hold of Hungary, and certain outlying portions of the kingdom broke off—Dalmatia seeking protection from Venice, and Moldavia falling under the power of Poland. After 1527 the kingdom of Hungary was ruled by the House of Hapsburg.

RUSSIA.

The vast and bleak plain of Russia was thinly tenanted at first by wandering tribes of Slavi. The first germ of government appeared in 862, when Ruric the Norseman fixed his residence at Novgorod. And a further great advance was made when Vladimir the Great was baptized a Christian in 986. The incursions of the Moguls troubled Russia for a long time, and it lay in subjection to these savage Asiatics, a nominal Grand Duke holding his court at Moscow, while the real masters of the soil desolated the country in the collection of their tribute. Timur the Tartar overran Russia, as will be seen further on; and it was not until Ivan Vasilovitch (1462–1505) became Czar that the Russian State can be regarded as fairly consolidated. It did not come into prominence as a Great Power in Europe until two more centuries had passed.

BYZANTINE EMPIRE (1261–1453).

After Michael Palæologus had recovered Constantinople in 1261, he united the Greek and Latin Churches in the hope of pleasing the Pope. His feeble successor dissolved this union, and the time and strength of the Greeks were wasted in vague religious disputations.

Meanwhile the Turks were pushing their approaches nearer. During the reign of John V. Palæologus, Othman having fixed his camp at Prusa in Bithynia, the Emperor's guardian, John Cantacuzenus, was forced to appease the infidel by permitting his daughter to marry him. Another humiliation was endured in 1370, when the representative of the ancient Roman purple, terrified by the fall of Adrianople before the Turks, agreed to pay tribute to these Asiatic invaders.

Aimurath the Emir of the Turks, who took the name Osmanli or Ottomans from Othman, created a military band called *Janissaries*, by devoting to warlike duties one-third of the Christian youths taken captive. By their aid he won the battle of Cosovia.

Meanwhile discord was weakening the Byzantines. A quarrel arose between John the Emperor and his son, and the latter with the assistance of the Genoese shut his father in prison for two years. Bajazet, now the Turkish Sultan, met a great allied force, in which the French fought under the banner of Sigismund, King of Hungary, and defeated them at Nicopolis (1396).

Manuel Palæologus then submitted himself to the Turks, consenting to pay tribute and to build a mosque in Constantinople; but this did not avail; the Turks began a siege; and throughout all Europe he could get no aid. At this juncture (1402) Timur, whose career will be sketched in the section upon Asiatic History, threatened Asia Minor, and compelled the Turkish Sultan to turn aside from Constantinople. Defeated at Angora, Bajazet was carried as a captive in a litter latticed with iron, until he died of shame and vexation.

The Greeks now ventured to raise their heads again, in the hope that the Turkish power was destroyed. They broke down the mosque, and proceeded to retake several places near Constantinople. But the final blow was only delayed. It fell in 1453, a date which may be regarded, though it is hard to fix an exact date that will suit all countries, as closing the History of the Middle Ages.

Fall of Constantinople.—Mohammed II., the Sultan of the

Turks, gathered an army of 70,000 for the reduction of Constantinople. Within the city Constantine XI., last of the Palæologi, could muster only 6000 soldiers for the defence, and there were no foreign allies except 2000 Genoese. The Turks
1453 had 320 ships; the Greeks only 14, which were chained
 A.D. within the harbour of the Golden Horn. The walls were assailed with stones and arrows, and a rude cannonade. Fiercely the defenders fought, and at first with success. Five ships from Chios forced their way through the Turkish fleet, and bore food and men into the harbour. But the Sultan carried some galleys across a neck of land, launched them in the harbour, and bombarded with such effect that a practicable breach was made in the central rampart. Then came the final assault, the triumph of the Turks, and the death of the Emperor Constantine—last of the Cæsars—who was slain in the struggle by some unknown hand. Thus the Turks obtained a firm footing in one corner of Europe, to which they have been restricted.

ASIA IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

The chief Asiatic races, which came in contact with those of Europe and left a name in history during the Middle Ages, were the Turks and the Moguls or Mongols.

We have already noticed the deeds of the former, of whom two branches were especially prominent—the Seljuks and the Ottomans. For a time it seemed as if the power of the Mongols was to obliterate all other Asiatic dynasties.

The cradle of the Mongol race is still called Mongolia—a portion of Chinese Tartary. There, upon a vast table-land, walled in and intersected by mighty mountain-ranges, they lived the restless life of nomads.

The Mongol chief who achieved most in Asia at this period was Zenghis Khan (Greatest Khan), who assumed this title instead of Temugin, his original name. Driven from his father's kingdom, while yet a boy, he found a refuge with Oungh Khan

—the supposed original of Prester John, a mysterious Christian monarch of Asia, in whom early popes, travellers, and navigators believed, and who kept his court near the Amour, north of the Chinese Wall. Zenghis Khan repaid the protection and confidence of Ough, who had given him his daughter to wife, by stealing the affections of his soldiers and defeating him in battle. Then at the Selenga the daring chief caused a great assembly of Mongols and Tartars to proclaim him under his proud title (1205). An old man confirmed his election by describing a vision he had seen from heaven, wherein the monarch was proclaimed by the enthroned Deity.

After making laws and organizing an army, Zenghis proceeded on his career of conquest. His first acquisition was China; he then overran in succession Tibet, Cashmere, and parts of Persia and Hindostan, laying in the last named country the foundation of a great Mogul Empire, which afterwards centred at Delhi. Mohammed Kothbeddin, the Turkish Sultan, attempted to withstand his approach towards Western Asia; but in vain. The battle was fought in 1218 near the Jaxartes; and resulted in the ultimate victory of Zenghis. Having marched in triumph into the great cities of Carizme, Herat, Balkh, Candahar, Bokhara, and Samarcand, he found himself master of a vast conglomerate empire, extending from the Volga to the Pacific, from the Altai to the Persian Gulf. Zenghis Khan died in 1227.

The sons, and more especially the grandsons, of Zenghis, extended and completed his conquests. His grandsons, Batu, Hoolagho, and Kublai, devoted themselves to different portions of the Eastern World.

Batu, son of Joojen, invaded Russia, defeated the great Alexander Nevski, and exacted tribute from the House of Ruric. Not content with this, he advanced into Poland, burned Cracow and Breslau, and so threatened Central Europe that a great gathering of nations under Henry of Silesia met him at Nollstadt near Legnica in 1242, and were defeated. Nothing could then have saved Europe from being overrun but the inability of the Mongols to take walled cities. They did not know the art of besieging.

Hoolagoo, another grandson of Zenghis, reduced Bagdad, the capital of the Moslem Caliphs, in 1258; and followed up his victory by the invasion of Syria and the Holy Land. But the Mamelukes expelled the Mongols from the latter.

Kublai established the Mongol power firmly in China in 1279, by overthrowing the *Song* dynasty, and conquering the province *Quang-tong*. He died in 1294.

The four divisions of the empire then were:—1. *Iran*, or Persia. 2. *Zagatai* or South-eastern Asia. 3. *Kaptschak*, a part of Russia bordering on the Caspian. 4. *China*.

The power of the Mongols grew to yet greater prominence under **Timur** (i.e., *Iron*), a descendant of Zenghis Khan and a native of *Zagatai*. He is otherwise called Tamerlane, a corruption of Timur-lenk, or Timur the Lame. This soldier of fortune secured his position, like Zenghis, by an act of ingratitude. Turning against Husein of Khorassan, he defeated him, took the throne of *Zagatai*, and fixed his capital at Samarcand. His first important conquest was Great Tartary, or Turkestan, and part of Siberia, which he took from the Getes. The storming of Herat, whose beautiful iron gates he carried off, laid Khorassan at his feet. Persia, weakened by the contention of its petty princes, then became his prey, though not until a war of five years had wasted it.

He then pushed his way towards India, conquering Bagdad as he went. His prudence as a general may be judged from the fact that, when he took this city he emptied all the wine-skins in the place into the Tigris.

The year 1398 witnessed his famous campaign in the north of India. Penetrating the Hindoo-Koosh by means of the passes, he reached the Indus, which he crossed at Attock, where Alexander of Macedon had also made the passage. Before he crossed the Sutlej, as he was passing across the Punjaub, he collected so many captives, that he deemed it necessary to slaughter them all in one great pile, lest they might rise in mutiny against him. Near Delhi, which with its vast treasures fell into his hands, he defeated the Indian army.

Turning then to Asia Minor he came in collision with the Ottoman Turks, whose city of Siwas (Sebaste) he took, and whose Sultan's son he murdered. Sultan Bajazet (i.e., *lightning*, from the swiftness of his marches), met Timur at Angora in Asia Minor, and there suffered a most signal defeat. 1402 Having made the Turkish Sultan captive, the Tartar A.D. chief carried him with his army, wherever he went, but only in a pаланquin, not in an iron cage, as the legend used to relate.

In 1405 Timur, while on his march to China, died at Otrar on the Jaxartes.

Persia after the death of Timur fell under the dominion of the Turkish tribes, which were called Black Sheep and White Sheep from the emblematic devices on their standards.

It will afterwards appear how Baber revived the splendours of the Mogul Empire in Northern India.

CHIEF DATES OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

FIFTH CENTURY, A.D.

	A.D.
Trentin invasion of England,	449
Zeno reigns at Byzantium,	474-91
Chiris takes the Franks,	486-511
Death of Odoacer in Italy,	493

SIXTH CENTURY, A.D.

Reign of Justinian,	527-65
Narses March of Ravenna,	553
St. Columba lands at Iona,	563
Lombards invade Italy,	568
Birth of Mohammed,	571
Papacy of Gregory I. (the Great),	590-604
Mission of Augustine to England,	597

SEVENTH CENTURY, A.D.

The Hijra,	622
Death of Mohammed,	632
Omar takes Jerusalem,	637
Reign of Richard the Lombard,	644
The Arabs besiege Constantinople,	663-75

EIGHTH CENTURY, A.D.

	A. D.
Saracens invade Spain,	710
Battle of Tours,	732
Merovingian Dynasty (Franks) ends,	752
Dynasty of Abbasides established,	753
Reign of Charlemagne,	771-814
Charlemagne defeats Desiderius the Lombard,	774
Reign of Caliph Haroun-al-Raschid,	786-808
Danes begin to invade England,	787
Charlemagne crowned at Rome,	800

NINTH CENTURY, A.D.

Irene dethroned (Byzantine),	802
Venice founded,	809
Egbert reigns in England,	827
Treaty of Verdun,	843
Kenneth MacAlpine rules all Scotland,	—
Ruric founds the Russian Empire,	862
Gorm the Old unites the Danish Isles,	863
Alfred reigns in England,	871-901

TENTH CENTURY, A.D.

Rollo the Norseman settles in France,	911
Reign of Otho the Great in Germany,	931-73
Otho crowned at Rome,	962
Reign of John Zimisces (Byzantine),	969-75
Capet Dynasty begins (France),	987

ELEVENTH CENTURY, A.D.

Massacre of St. Brice (England),	1002
Battle of Hastings (England),	1066
Papacy of Hildebrand,	1073-85
Seljuk Turks take Palestine,	1076
Henry IV. of Germany excommunicated,	1077
Siege of Durazzo by the Normans,	1081
Moorish Empire established in Spain,	1087
Portugal separated from Castile,	1095
First Crusade begins,	1096
The Eight Crusades continue,	1096-1291

TWELFTH CENTURY, A.D.

Battle of the Standard (England),	1133
Plantagenets begin to reign in England,	1154
The Lombard League,	1167

	A. D.
Sahlin conquers the Fatimites in Egypt,	1171
The English occupy Ireland,	1172
Battle of Legnano (Italy),	1176
Philip Augustus reigns in France,	1180-1223
Third Crusade,	1189-92

THIRTEENTH CENTURY, A.D.

Crusaders (Lat.) take Constantinople,	1203
Timur Khan proclaimed,	1205
Battle of Tordes (Spain),	1212
Magna Charta signed,	1215
Teutonic Knights conquer Prussia,	1228-81
Battle of Lincoln,	1242
Hanse League formed,	1247
Moor in Spain possesses Granada only,	1250
Latin Empire of Constantinople overthrown,	1261
Battle of Largs (Scotland),	1263
Rudolf of Hapsburg emperor,	1273
Golden Vespers,	1282
Wales conquered,	—

FOURTEENTH CENTURY, A.D.

Pope at Avignon,	1305-77
Robert Bruce reigns in Scotland,	1306-29
William Tell,	1307
Battle of Hainault,	1314
Battle of Marston,	1315
Council of Ten at Venice,	1325
Chaitan the Great rules in Poland,	1333-70
Beginning of Hundred Years' War,	1337
Battle of Crecy,	1346
Revolution of Rieti,	1347
Marion Falsch beheaded,	1355
Battle of Poitiers,	1356
Battle of Navarrette,	1367
Stuart dynasty in Scotland,	1370
Gusman defeated at Chalgia,	1373
Convention of Somersham,	1383
Battle of Nempole,	1396
Union of Calmar,	1397
Timur the Tartar takes Delhi,	1398

FIFTEENTH CENTURY, A.D.

Timur defeats Bajazet at Angora,	1402
Death of Shrewsbury,	1403

	A.D.
Battle of Agincourt,	1415
Martyrdom of Huss at Constance,	1415
Siege of Rouen by the English,	1419
Orleans relieved by Joan of Arc,	1429
Council of Basle,	1433-49
Invention of printing about,	1440
House of Oldenburg reign in Denmark,	1448
Francis Sforza takes Milan,	1450
Constantinople taken by the Turks,	1453
Council of Three at Venice,	1454
War of the Roses begins,	1455
Reign of Louis XI. of France,	1461-83
Cosmo di Medici dies,	1464
War of the Public Good (France),	1465
Printing introduced into England,	1474
Battles of Granson and Morat,	1476
Mary of Burgundy marries Maximilian of Austria,	1477
Battle of Bosworth,	1485
Granada wrested from the Moors,	1492
Columbus discovers America,	—
Vasco de Gama doubles the Cape,	1497

MODERN HISTORY.

Is undertaking an outline Sketch of Modern History, embracing every event of striking importance that took place during this period in every country of the World, it seems best to give up the plan, hitherto adopted, of making the various histories run, as far as possible, in lines abreast of each other, and to fall back upon a plan which, in dealing with a multiplicity of details, will be less confusing. Henceforth, when the thread of a country's history is taken up, it will be followed to the present time. The order adopted, based upon relative importance or geographical position, will be as follows :—

EUROPE.

1. British Empire.
2. Adjacent Countries: *i.e.*, France—Belgium—Holland—Denmark—Sweden—Norway.
3. Central Countries: *i.e.*, Germany—Prussia—Austria—Switzerland.
4. Southern Countries: *i.e.*, Portugal—Spain—Italy—Greece—Turkey.
5. Eastern: Russia.

ASIA.

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Colonization of Asia. | 3. China and Japan. |
| 2. India. | 4. Rest of Asia. |

NORTH AMERICA.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Discovery and Colonization. | 4. Mexico. |
| 2. United States. | 5. West Indies. |
| 3. British America. | 6. Rest of North America. |

SOUTH AMERICA.

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|--|---------------------------|
| 1. Discovery and Colonization. | | 3. Chili. |
| 2. Brazil. | | 4. Rest of South America. |

AUSTRALIA,—Discovery and Colonization.

AFRICA,—Colonization and Exploration.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

THE TUDOR SOVEREIGNS (1485-1603).

Henry VII. (1485-1509) was a cautious and economical man, who by his marriage with Elizabeth of York, representative of the White Roses, managed to unite the parties whose wars had convulsed the land. His reign was full of conspiracies. First came Simnel, a baker's son, pretending to be the Earl of Warwick, a son of Clarence. The battle of Stoke crushed his claims. Then appeared, also in Ireland, Perkin Warbeck, who announced himself to be Richard Duke of York, the younger of those princes whom popular rumour regarded as having been smothered in the Tower by Richard III. A landing at Deal—a visit to Scotland, where James IV. received him kindly—a fruitless invasion of England on the north—and a Cornish insurrection, after which Perkin deserted his army, only to be taken prisoner, were the leading events of this imposture.

In 1502 took place the wedding of the Rose and the Thistle—the marriage of James IV. King of Scotland to Margaret Tudor, daughter of Henry VII. Upon this union rested the claims of hapless Mary Queen of Scots to the English throne, and the succession of her son to the same royal seat.

Henry VII., who saw how England might rise to an extended commerce, built ships, and encouraged maritime enterprise. Under his patronage the Cabots sailed from Bristol and discovered Labrador (1497).

Henry VIII. (1509-1547) had for his minister during twenty years the celebrated Thomas Wolsey, who raised himself by

forced of talent from a humble station to be Archbishop and Cardinal of York, High Chancellor of England, and Papal Legate. Henry won two battles early in his reign;—one in France at Guinegate, known as the battle of **1513** Spurs; the other at Flodden, where Surrey defeated and **A.D.** slew James IV. of Scotland (1513).

When Henry VIII. heard of the doings of Luther in Germany, he (or Wolsey) wrote a treatise defending the seven sacraments of the Romish Church. For this the Pope rewarded him with the title *Fidei Defensor*. But it soon happened that Henry, enamoured of Anne Boleyn, wished to obtain a divorce from Catherine of Aragon, his first wife. Wolsey, acting under the Pope's influence, delayed the gratification of this wish, and so lost favour with his royal master. In 1529 the Cardinal was banished from court, and in the following year he died at Leicester Abbey. Sir Thomas More succeeded him as Chancellor, but lost his head in 1535, because he refused to acknowledge the King's supremacy as Head of the Church.

During the remainder of his reign Henry was engaged in attempts to force on the English people a religious system of his own, the details of which he often changed. He embodied his doctrines in a set of Acts in 1539, which he called the *Six Articles*, but which the people came to call the *Bloody Statute*. In addition to this, he suppressed and plundered the monasteries, but rather for the spoil they yielded than from a religious motive. He was fickle in his choice both of wives and of ministers. Of the former he married in all *six*; and of these two—Anne Boleyn and Catherine Howard—were beheaded. Of the latter four were prominent; and of these two also—More and Thomas Cromwell—went to the block. His great contemporaries in Europe were the Emperor Charles V. and Francis I. of France. His interview with the latter in 1520 near Calais was called the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*.

The last victim of Henry's ferocity was that accomplished Earl of Surrey, who wrote the first blank verse used in English poetry, and whose only crime was the adoption of the arms of Edward

the Confessor on his shield. Henry died in 1547, being then aged fifty-six.

Edward VI. (1547–1553) reigned for only six years, but they were years teeming with great results. Under the Protector Somerset a war with Scotland began. An English army invaded Scotland, and defeated the Regent Arran at Pinkie, not far from Edinburgh (1547). Yet this did not force the Scottish people to marry their little princess Mary to young Edward. An enemy to Protector Somerset arose in the person of Warwick, afterwards Duke of Northumberland, through whose intrigues the Protector came to the scaffold in 1552. But the greatest event of the reign was the foundation of the Anglican Church in a Protestant form, and the publication of that beautiful Liturgy—the Book of Common Prayer—which came forth in English under the superintendence of Archbishop Cranmer. The death of Edward

1552 at the age of sixteen caused Lady Jane Grey, to whom
A.D. Northumberland had married his son, to assume the crown, which she can scarcely be said to have worn, for in ten days a stronger party set Mary, daughter of Catherine of Aragon, on the throne.

Mary I. (1553–1558) brought the history of England into contact with that of Spain by marrying Philip II. This was a step in the great task she devoted herself to—the restoration of the Roman Catholic faith in England. Cardinal Pole came to England as Papal Legate at her invitation; and a solemn ceremony took place in 1554, for the purpose of reconciling the estranged daughter to forgiving Mother Church. A fierce persecution of Protestants ensued, beginning in 1555 with the martyrdom of Rogers at Smithfield. Latimer, Ridley, and Cranmer were the most notable sufferers.

The last year of Mary's reign was marked by the loss of Calais, which the Duke of Guise attacked in the middle of winter, having crossed the frozen marshes which enclosed the town. Thus ended—happily for England, though the loss was sorely felt at first—the dream of an English dominion in France.

Elizabeth (1558–1603), daughter of Anne Boleyn, was the last

of the royal Tudors. The first years of her reign, afterwards so brilliant, were disturbed by a schism in the newly founded Church; from which in 1566 a section, calling themselves *Puritans*, seceded. The distinctive principles of this body were founded mainly upon doctrines imbibed at Frankfort and Geneva, whither some of them had fled during the recent persecutions.

Elizabeth owed much to her statesmen, of whom the chief were Cecil, afterwards Lord Burleigh, and Francis Walsingham. The latter had much to do with the unhappy affairs of Mary Stuart. Driven from her Scottish throne, this rash, perhaps guilty, woman fled in 1568 to England. There the Duke of Norfolk—the leading Roman Catholic noble—sought her in marriage. It was a perilous time; and the air was charged with terrors of conspiracy and massacre. The frightful carnage of St. Bartholomew in France (1572) added to the terror; and, when one plot after another arose to set Mary on the throne of England and kill Elizabeth, it was deemed necessary to bring the Scottish Queen to trial for connivance in Babington's conspiracy. Tried at Fotheringay, she was found guilty: after some reluctance, real or pretended, Elizabeth signed the death-warrant; and the grey head of once beautiful Mary was struck off in Fotheringay Hall (1587).

In the following year Philip II. of Spain, having resolved, as the champion of the Roman Catholic cause, to crush Elizabeth, a defender of Protestantism, sent out that great fleet of 132 ships, known as the *Invincible Armada*. The Duke of Parma also collected an army at Dunkirk, ready to invade England. The English fleet, 191 strong, but composed of small and light ships, was under Lord Howard of Effingham. The foes 1588
met in sight near Plymouth, and for eleven days (July A.D.
19-30) the active English vessels followed the heavy
cruisers that bore the Spaniards up the Channel, fighting as they sailed in pursuit. Eight little ships, filled with combustible materials, were sent in among the Spanish fleet as they lay at anchor near Calais; and the Armada scattered in terrified flight. There was no way open except that to the north; so that the remnant of the fleet was forced to sail home by the Pentland Firth.

During the reign of Elizabeth the conquest of Ireland, begun by Strongbow under the first of the Plantagenets, was completed. In the south of the island Desmond was conquered in 1583; an event not without a literary interest, for Edmund Spenser received from the forfeited estates of the chief Kilcolman, where he wrote the *Faerie Queene*. But a more serious rebellion—that of Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone—was crushed in 1602 by Lord-Deputy Mountjoy.

Elizabeth died in 1603. Her reign is remarkable for success in maritime enterprise both in war and exploration, and for brilliance in literature, especially in a dramatic form.

GREAT BRITAIN.

THE STUART SOVEREIGNS (1603-1714).

James I. (1603-1625), the son of Mary Queen of Scots, succeeded Elizabeth on the throne of England; and henceforth he ceased to be known as James VI., his Scottish title. A number of plots arose at once; of these the most remarkable was that in favour of Arabella Stuart. Sir Walter Raleigh, being involved in this, was sent to the Tower.

A more serious conspiracy followed—the *Gunpowder Plot* of 1605, set on foot by discontented Roman Catholics, who, by laying barrels of gunpowder below the House of Lords, prepared to blow up the assembly of both Houses. An anonymous letter, advising Lord Mounteagle to stay away, caused a search to be made, and Guido Fawkes was taken in the cellar. With several others he perished for his crime.

James endeavoured to establish Episcopacy in Scotland; he planted new settlements in the north of Ireland, which greatly promoted the prosperity of Ulster. In England he was influenced much by favourites, of whom the chief were Carr and Villiers, better known as Somerset and Buckingham.

Sir Walter Raleigh, after many years in prison, which he devoted to his "History of the World," was released that he might point out a gold mine he knew of in Guiana. Sailing to

the Orinoco, he attacked the town of St. Thomas, and on his return to England was beheaded (1618), in order to appease the wrath of Spain.

The disgrace and deposition of Lord Chancellor Bacon, another star of English literature, occurred in 1621 as a fitting punishment for accepting bribes.

A marriage between Prince Charles and the Spanish Infanta was proposed, which led the Prince and Buckingham to travel in disguise to Spain. But the match was broken off; and Henrietta-Maria of France became the wife of Charles.

Charles I. (1625-49) was the only monarch of England that perished on a scaffold. From the very beginning of his reign he strove to force a system of illegal taxation on the people. But the Parliament resisted; and men such as Oliver Cromwell, John Eliot, and John Hampden joined its ranks. The Parliament of 1628 wrested from Charles the famous *Petition of Right*, levelled against illegal taxation and unjust imprisonment, whereupon in a rage the King dissolved the assembly, and for eleven years called no new Parliament.

Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, and Archbishop Laud then directed the councils of the King. The former ruled Ireland by the cruel system which he called *Thorough*; the latter prepared a Liturgy for Scotland, which, on its first reading, excited a riot in St. Giles's, Edinburgh, and led to the signing of that document called the *National Covenant* (1638).

The imposition of *ship-money*, illegally levied in the time of peace on inland towns, excited the resistance of Hampden, a Buckinghamshire squire, whose case was tried in the Court of Exchequer; but the decision was given against him (1637).

The *Short Parliament* sat for less than a month of 1640; in the autumn of the same year met the famous *Long Parliament*. Then the struggle began. Strafford was impeached and executed. The King manfully tried to arrest five leading members, among whom were Pym and Hampden; and in a short time a civil war began.

It lasted about three years (1642-45). At first the Cavaliers, as the Royalists were called, had the advantage. The indecisive

battle of Edgehill was the first engagement. Charles fixed his head-quarters at Oxford, and took Bristol. But he was foiled in besieging Gloucester; and the Roundhead cause soon achieved a splendid triumph at Marston Moor, chiefly owing to Oliver Cromwell and his Ironsides (1644). The battle of Naseby, also a Roundhead victory, decided the result of the war.

Charles fled from Oxford to the Scots at Newark, where a Covenanting army was encamped. The Scots gave him up to the moderate English Presbyterians, but he was seized and imprisoned by order of Cromwell. This daring genius then marched against the Scottish Royalists under Hamilton, whom he defeated at Preston. Then, returning to London, he placed soldiers round the Parliament House, to keep out the moderate Presbyterians, and

thus reduced the assembly to about forty Independents devoted to his cause. Charles was then tried at Westminster Hall for levying war against his people; and on the 30th of January 1649 he undauntedly bowed his head under the axe in front of the Banqueting Hall of Whitehall Palace.

The Commonwealth (1649–1660) then began. It consisted of three periods. 1. From Charles' death to the appointment of Cromwell as Lord Protector (1649–53). 2. The Protectorate of Cromwell (1653–58). 3. The interval of anarchy (1658–60).

During the first period Cromwell reduced Ireland to subjection with great severity. He then went with Monk to Scotland, where he won the battle of Dunbar (1650) and secured the surrender of Edinburgh. Charles II., appearing in the following year in Scotland, invaded England at Carlisle, and penetrated southward to Worcester, where Cromwell defeated him—1651. Meanwhile a naval war with the Dutch had been progressing, Blake being opposed to the Dutch admirals Van Tromp and De Ruyter, whom he defeated.

In 1653 Cromwell with his soldiers expelled the Long Parliament, and soon, by the *Instrument of Government*, was made Lord Protector.

Under his firm rule the name of England grew great abroad. Jamaica, one of her chief colonies, was taken from Spain in 1655;

and in 1657 Blake defeated the Spaniards at Teneriffe. At home he endured many troubles from Levellers, Fifth Monarchy men, Quakers, and other strange growths of Puritanism. He selected preachers by means of examiners called *Triers*, and for a time kept England under the military dominion of Major-Generals. His later life was embittered by fears of assassination, and by the reproaches of his favourite daughter, who died before him. He breathed his last at Whitehall on the 3rd of September 1658.

Richard Cromwell, Oliver's son, succeeded as Protector, but held the office for only eight months. Then followed a year of anarchy, until Monk came from Scotland with an army; the Long Parliament dissolved itself; and a Convention of Cavaliers and Presbyterians invited Charles II. back to the throne of his father.

Charles II. (1660-85) entered London on the 29th May, 1660. For a time, like Roman Nero, he promised well, but his dissolute habits soon became apparent. The companion of his exile, Edward Hyde, was made Lord Chancellor, with the title of Lord Clarendon, but in 1667 he lost favour and was deposed. Before this time England had suffered a great degradation at the hands of the Dutch, who, under Admiral De Ruyter, sailed into the estuary of the Thames and burned the English shipping. During this reign bitter persecution was inflicted on the Scottish Covenanters, who, rising in arms, were defeated in 1666 by Dalziel near the Pentlands; but in 1679, after the murder of Archbishop Sharp at Magus Muir, gained a victory over Graham of Claverhouse at Drumclog.

The government of Charles after Clarendon's dismissal rested with five men, called the *Cabal* from the initial letters of their names. These were followed by Danby, and then by Temple and Halifax. The chief political event of the reign was the passing of the *Habeas Corpus Act* (1679), by which the detention of a person in prison after a certain time without trial is forbidden. 1679 A.D.

Towards the end of the reign, the Whigs, led by Russell and Sidney, formed a plot to put Monmouth, a natural son of Charles, on the throne. This, called the *Rye house Plot*, was crushed by the execution of the chiefs. Charles died in 1685.

James II. (1685–88), previously Duke of York, succeeded his brother on the throne. Monmouth landed in Dorsetshire, and was defeated at *Sedgemoor* within the year (1685). He suffered on the scaffold; and Jeffreys, in what was called the *Bloody Assize*, inflicted capital punishment on more than three hundred of his followers.

With blind obstinacy James attempted both to act independently of the laws, and to force the Roman Catholic religion upon England. He published on his own authority a *Declaration of Indulgence*, giving liberty of worship to all, and commanded all clergy to read it from their pulpits. The London clergy refused to obey; and six bishops, headed by Archbishop Sancroft, the Primate, presented a petition against it. For this they were tried, but were acquitted; and about the same time William of Orange, who in 1677 had married Mary, the elder daughter of James, was invited from Holland to fill the English throne.

He landed at Torbay—James fled to France—and the *Declaration of Rights*, passed by a *Convention* (i.e., a Parliament not summoned by a Sovereign), conferred on him and his wife the crown of England (1689).

William III. and Mary II. (1689–94).—James, however, did not yield without a struggle, of which Ireland was the chief scene. Besieging Londonderry in vain, he was signally
1690 defeated at the Boyne in 1690. After his return to
 A.D. France his generals were further defeated at Aughrim and Limerick (1691). Two years earlier, the death of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, at Killiecrankie in Perthshire, had deprived the Stuart cause of its chief partisan in Scotland.

The death of Mary in 1694 left her husband to rule alone. This he did by prudently conceding a good deal to the Parliament, providing that they gave him money to carry on the war with Louis XIV. The chief events of this war were the defeat of the French fleet off Cape La Hogue (1692), the battles of Steinkirk and Landen, and the siege of Namur. The Treaty of Ryswick brought the struggle to an end in 1697.

William did not treat Scotland well. The massacre of the

Macdonalds at Glenlivet (1692), and his neglect of the Scottish colony at Darien were two notable instances of this.

The chief enactment of the reign was the *Act of Settlement* (1701), by which it was decreed that the Sovereign should belong to the Church of England. A fall from his horse caused William's death in 1702.

Anne (1702-14), second daughter of James II., was the last of the Stuart sovereigns. During a great part of her reign the War of the Spanish Succession went on. Its chief theatres were Spain and the Low Countries.

In 1704 Rooke took Gibraltar, and Marlborough won the battle of Blenheim; and then Ramilies (1706), Oudenarde (1708), Malplaquet (1709) added new laurels to those won at Blenheim by the great captain of the war. In Spain, Peterborough took Barcelona; but Berwick, fighting for the Bourbon, won in 1707 the great battle of Almanza. The Treaty of Utrecht (1713) terminated the struggle.

The chief political events of Anne's reign were the Union of the Scottish Parliament with that of England (1707)—a measure which to a great extent laid the foundation of Scottish prosperity; and the struggle between the Whigs and the Tories, which culminated in 1710 in the triumph of the latter. Harley and St. John came into power; Sunderland was dismissed, and Marlborough disgraced. But the intrigues of St. John (Bolingbroke) caused the fall of Harley (Oxford) before Anne's death, which took place in 1714.

THE BRUNSWICK SOVEREIGNS

George I. (1714-27), Elector of Hanover, now became King of England, the link through which he succeeded being the marriage of Elizabeth, daughter of James I., with Frederic of Bohemia. His accession restored the Whigs to favour.

The Jacobites—as the favourers of the Stuart cause were called—intrigued continually for half the century. In 1715 a rising took place in Scotland under the Earl of Mar; but he was defeated at Sheriffmuir. On the same day the English Jaco-

bites were crushed at Preston. The Pretender James merely showed himself, ere he fled from Montrose back to France.

The commercial disaster called the South Sea Bubble belongs to this reign (1720). The shares of the company rose to an enormous price, and the nation went mad with speculation, until reaction and ruin set in. Robert Walpole saved the nation by his prompt measures of finance.

The Septennial Bill, limiting the duration of a Parliament to seven years, was the leading enactment of the reign. George I. died while travelling in Hanover (1727).

George II. (1727-60), his son, succeeded. For nearly half the reign—*i.e.*, until 1742—Sir Robert Walpole ruled in the councils of the State. In 1733 this minister, who managed the Parliament by bribery, brought in an Excise Bill, which was ultimately withdrawn, owing to the storm of opposition it raised. In 1736 the Porteous Mob excited a riot in Edinburgh, breaking into prison and hanging on a dyer's pole Captain Porteous, who had ordered the City Guard to fire on a crowd.

Britain, having sided with Maria Theresa of Hungary, engaged in war with France. Dettingen (1743), in which King George II. defeated a French army, and Fontenoy (1745), in which Saxe defeated Cumberland, were the leading battles of this war.

The Jacobite rebellion of 1745 now began. Landing near Moidart on the west coast of Scotland, Charles Edward, the young Pretender, pressed on to Edinburgh, where he resided in Holyrood Palace. After winning the battle of Prestonpans, he invaded England, and penetrated to Derby, but turned there and retreated into Scotland. A victorious skirmish at Falkirk roused his hopes, but at Culloden he was finally defeated (April 16, 1746).

The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) brought a temporary lull, but England was soon involved in the events of the Seven Years' War, with which was interwoven a struggle with France in India and America. In the former land the battle of Plassey (1757), won by Clive, left the British masters of Bengal; in the

latter, the victory of Abraham's Plains, won above Quebec and dearly bought by the death of General Wolfe, wrested the province of Canada from the French (1759). The victory of Minden in Hanover was a further blow to French power in the same year.

William Pitt, the "Great Commoner," afterwards Earl of Chatham, rose to eminence as a statesman during the last years of George II., who died in 1760.

George III. (1760-1820) spent a nominal reign of sixty years, but insanity and blindness made more than the last decade a mournful blank. Ere the reign was five years old, symptoms of the great and (to Britain) disastrous American War began to appear. In 1765 was passed a *Stamp Act*, imposing upon the American colonies duties similar to those in England. This was afterwards repealed; but other taxes were imposed, which excited the colonists to arms. The war broke out in 1775 at Lexington, and the battle of Bunker's Hill followed. In 1776 the Americans declared their independence; and after seven campaigns, during which George Washington was the hero of the struggle, and the British were twice forced to surrender—at Saratoga and at Yorktown—the mother country was forced to acknowledge the independence of her trans-atlantic daughter, who exchanged monarchy for the republic, a form of government always dear to the Puritans, by whom the thirteen States had been chiefly founded (1783).

A war with France and Spain was chiefly notable for the great siege of Gibraltar (1779-82), which was bravely defended by Elliot, and relieved by Admiral Lord Howe.

The reign of George III. was fruitful in colonial history. The vast island of Australia may be said to have been now joined to our empire through the enterprise of Captain Cook and other heroes of discovery; and in India the work of conquest and annexation, so well begun by Clive, was continued by Warren Hastings, who, however, on his return home in 1788, was brought to trial for tyranny. On this occasion magnificent orations were made by Sheridan and Burke.

About midway in the reign the French Revolution occurred,

and out of its bloodshed and confusion rose Napoleon Bonaparte, one of the greatest foes with whom Britain has ever contended. She was fortunate in possessing two defenders, who proved their right to be regarded as her greatest sailor and her greatest soldier. To Horatio Nelson, who destroyed the French fleet in 1798 at the Nile, and in 1805 died at Trafalgar, where he inflicted a terrible defeat upon the navies of France and Spain, belongs the glory of the former name; Arthur, Duke of Wellington, "the hero of a hundred fights, who never lost an English gun," taught the Corsican to respect a nation, whose soldiers could withstand and repel the bravest troops of France.

In 1798 a rebellion broke out in Ireland; it was crushed at Vinegar Hill in Wexford: and in 1801 took place the Union, which merged the Irish Parliament in that of the British Empire.

In 1806 Pitt and Fox, two rival statesmen of the greatest eminence, died.

The earlier career of Napoleon I. will be sketched afterwards. It was in 1808 that he tried to make his brother Joseph King of Spain. Britain resisted this, and war began.

For six years (1808-14) the Peninsula was the scene of deadly struggles, in which Wellesley—afterwards Wellington—step by step drove the French marshals back, until the final triumph of Vitoria (1813) sent them flying across the Pyrenees.

During these years politics at home were troubled by discussions about a Regency; for George III., ever since 1788, had been showing symptoms of insanity. In 1809 an expedition of English troops to Walcheren ended in miserable failure; and a short American War (1812-14) took place, during which Canada was invaded, and the British burned part of Washington.

The escape of Napoleon from Elba in 1815 called Europe once more to arms. Wellington commanded a British force
1815 in Belgium, where on the 18th June 1815 was fought
 A.D. the decisive battle of Waterloo. On this eventful day, aided by the Prussians, the British utterly defeated the splendid army of the Emperor, and deprived him of every hope.

The few remaining years of King George's life were barren in

evaded. Lord Exmouth bombarded Algiers, and cru-
pirate nest in 1816; and in the following year the hope
nation—the Princess Charlotte, daughter of Prince George,
wife of Prince Leopold, died. The reign—which had been a
Regency since 1811—came to an end in 1820.

George IV. (1820-30) had already been Regent for nine years.
He was profligate and extravagant. A great scandal arose when
Queen Caroline, whom he had treated badly, was repulsed from
the door of Westminster Abbey on the day of the coronation.
The ill-used princess died a few days later (1821). George
Canning was the great statesman of the reign. In 1827 Britain
took part with France and Russia in forcing Turkey to acknow-
ledge the independence of Greece; and the battle of Navarino
was fought. The last year but one of this reign witnessed the
great political struggle, which resulted in the emancipation of the
Roman Catholics from injurious penal laws. This measure,
passed under the ministry of Wellington and Peel, received the
royal signature in 1829. George IV. died in the following year,
aged sixty-eight.

William IV. (1830-37) had been a sailor by profession ere he
succeeded his brother. The first railway—running from Liver-
pool to Manchester—was now opened, but the triumph was
marred by the sad accident of Mr. Huskisson's death. This
eminent statesman was killed by a passing engine.

The first *Reform Bill*, proposed by Lord John, now Earl
Russell, was passed in 1832. By this measure the franchise was
extended in towns to tenants paying £10 of rent, in counties to
tenants paying £50, or freeholders of £10. Another political
achievement of the reign was the *Negro Emancipation Bill*,
by which, through the efforts chiefly of Wilberforce, all slavery
was abolished throughout the British Empire. William IV.
died in 1837, aged seventy-one.

Victoria (1837) has now reigned for more than thirty years.
Her accession caused the separation of Hanover from the British
crown, since the Salic law prevailed in that state. Early in her
reign violent Radicals, calling themselves Chartists, disturbed

the peace at home; while abroad there was rebellion in Canada, and soon afterwards war in Syria, Afghanistan, and China. The last, ending in 1842, was effective in opening many ports to British commerce.

In 1843 a number of ministers and laymen seceded from the Church of Scotland, and founded the Free Church. This event was named the *Disruption*.

The conquest of Scinde (1846) and the Punjaub (1849) increased our Indian territory by the addition of the basin of the Indus. Napier and Outram were the leaders in the former struggle; Gough and Hardinge in the latter. 4

A great domestic event was the *Repeal of the Corn Laws* in 1846. Lancashire was the cradle of the movement—Richard Cobden its ruling spirit. Certain classes, interested in English agriculture, were for Protection—i.e., laying heavy duties on corn from abroad. But Sir Robert Peel, at first resisting the measure, yielded at last, and the Bill was passed, reducing the tax on foreign grain.

The following year (1847) witnessed much loss and trouble from wild speculation in railway shares.

In Ireland a blight of the potato crop was followed by famine and fever; and the agitation for a repeal of the Union broke out in 1848 into a feeble rebellion. This was but a vibration of the revolutionary throes which, as will be seen, shook all Europe during this year.

In 1851 the first International Exhibition of Arts and Manufactures was opened in the **Crystal Palace** in Hyde Park. The experiment has been repeated several times since, especially in 1862 in London, and in 1867 at Paris.

About this time England lost two of her greatest men;—Sir Robert Peel, who was killed by a fall from his horse in 1850; and the Duke of Wellington, who died in 1852 at the age of eighty-three. Born in 1769, the latter was forty-six when he won Waterloo: the rest of his long life was given to peace.

In 1853 the **Russian War** began, excited by the occupation of Moldavia and Wallachia by the Czar. France and England

sided with Turkey. There was fighting on the Danube and in the Baltic; but the chief scene of the struggle was the Crimea. The Allies, having forced the passage of the Alma, formed the siege of Sebastopol (Oct. 17, 1854). Close by, were fought the great battles of Balaklava and Inkermann—the former memorable for a daring charge of the Light Cavalry. Bitter were the sufferings of the troops in the trenches during the winter; nor was it until Sept. 8, 1855, that the French troops took a fort called Malakoff, the key of the defence. Peace was signed in 1856.

A little later occurred the **Indian Mutiny**. After its outbreak at Meerut in Northern India (May 10, 1857), the native troops or Sepoys seized Delhi, which was besieged by the British (June 4–Sept. 20). Another centre of the struggle was Lucknow on the Ganges in Oude, where the British were besieged in the Residency by yelling mutineers, until relieved by the gallant and pious Havelock. But he too was locked up by the approach of a yet greater swarm of Sepoys; and it was not for many weeks that a second relief was effected by Sir Colin Campbell, who was afterwards created Lord Clyde for his services in stamping out the mutiny. The massacre of Cawnpore (June 27, 1857) was the most tragic of all the terrible scenes enacted during this outbreak.

During the years 1856–57 a second Chinese War was proceeding.

An important result of the Indian Mutiny was the transference of the government of this greatest of our Asiatic dependencies from the East India Company to the British Crown. This was accomplished by the India Bill of 1858; and Indian affairs are now controlled by a special Secretary of State.

During a third Chinese War, in 1860, Peking was entered by a French and English force.

In the following year began that American War, between North and South, of which a sketch will be afterwards given. Britain remained neutral; though for a time, owing to the seizure of two Southern envoys on board of a British steam-boat, there was fear of entanglement. The war acted indirectly upon Britain by stopping the supplies of cotton from the Southern States, upon which the mills of Lancashire then mainly depended; and the

work-people were reduced for a time to want during this Cotton Famine.

The death of Prince Albert in 1861, and the marriage of the Prince of Wales in 1863 were important events in the Royal Family.

In 1866 the Electric Cable was successfully laid between Ireland and America: and a cable, laid previously in 1858, was recovered by grappling, and made fit for use.

The futile and foolish attempts of the Fenians to subvert Her Majesty's Government in Ireland; and the passing of the Second Reform Bill, giving the franchise in boroughs to every household paying poor-rates, and in counties to tenants rated at £12, have been the most notable circumstances of 1867.

MODERN BRITISH CHRONOLOGY.

			A.D.	
Accession of the Tudor Sovereigns,	1485	... Henry VII.
Perkin Warbeck's imposture crushed,	1497	—

SIXTEENTH CENTURY, A.D.

Marriage of James IV. of Scotland to Mary Tudor,	1502	... Henry VII.
Battle of Flodden,	1513	... Henry VIII.
Wolsey a Papal Legate,	1513	—
Death of Cardinal Wolsey,	1530	—
Act of Supremacy passed,	1534	—
Suppression of the Monasteries complete,	1539	—
Battle of Pinkie,	1547	... Edward VI.
Anglican Liturgy completed,	1552	—
The Spanish marriage,	1554	... Mary I.
The Marian persecutions,	1555-6	—
Loss of Calais,	1558	—
Puritan secession,	1566	... Elizabeth.
Execution of Mary Queen of Scots,	1587	—
Defeat of the Spanish Armada,	1588	—

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY, A.D.

Accession of Stuart Sovereigns,	1603	... James I.
Gunpowder Plot,	1605	—
Execution of Raleigh,	1618	—
Disgrace of Bacon,	1621	—
Petition of Right,	1628	... Charles I.
Trial of Hampden,	1637	—
National Covenant signed,	1638	—
Long Parliament meets,	1640	—

	A.D.	
Civil War,	1642-5	... Charles I.
Execution of Charles I.	1649	—
Battle of Dunbar,	1650	... Oliver Cromwell.
Battle of Worcester,	1651	—
Long Parliament expelled,	1653	—
Cromwell Protector,	—	—
Death of Cromwell,	1658	—
Restoration of Stuart,	1660	... Charles II.
Habeas Corpus Act,	1679	—
Battle of Sedgemoor,	1685	... James II.
Trial of the Seven Bishops,	1683	—
Second English Revolution,	1683-91	—
Battle of the Boyne,	1690	... William III.
Massacre of Glencoe,	1692	—

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY, A.D.

Act of Settlement,	1701	... William III.
Battle of Blenheim,	1704	... Anne.
Smolensk Union,	1707	—
Treaty of Utrecht,	1713	—
First Jacobite Rebellion,	1715	... George I.
South Sea Bubble,	1720	—
Battle of Dettingen,	1743	... George II.
Battle of Portmoy,	1745	—
Second Jacobite Rebellion,	—	—
Battle of Culloden,	1746	—
Battle of Flandy,	1757	—
Canada taken,	1760	—
The Stamp Act,	1765	... George III.
American War,	1775-83	—
Trial of Warren Hastings,	1783	—
Battle of the Nile	1798	—

NINETEENTH CENTURY, A.D.

Irish Union,	1801	... George III.
Battle of Trafalgar,	1805	—
Peninsular War,	1808-14	—
Battle of Waterloo,	1815	—
Catholic Emancipation,	1829	... George IV.
First Reform Bill,	1832	... William IV.
Repeal of Corn Laws,	1846	... Victoria.
Crimean War,	1853-56	—
Indian Mutiny,	1857	—
The Indian Bill,	1858	—
Athletic Club Bill,	1866	—
Second Reform Bill,	1867	—

HISTORY OF FRANCE (1483 to the Present Time).

HOUSE OF VALOIS—*continued*.

Charles VIII. (1483-98).—Of the twelve sovereigns of the House of Valois who governed France, seven reigned after Louis XI. His son, a feeble child, came to the throne as Charles VIII. The sister of this boy, Anne of Beaujeau, and Louis of Orleans, next heir to the crown, contended for supremacy, which the former gained. This stern and sagacious woman forced her brother, in spite of his betrothal to the little daughter of Maximilian of Austria, to marry Anne of Bretagne, a powerful heiress, for whose hand Maximilian himself was seeking. Ambitious to be classed among conquerors like Cæsar and Alexander, Charles invaded Italy in 1494, and swept victorious through Tuscany, Rome, and Naples. But there his course was stayed by the coalition of Venice, Milan, the Pope, and Maximilian, who united against him, obliged him to retrace his steps, and in spite of his victory at Fornovo over the Venetians, stripped him of all his conquests. The chief result of his campaigning was the love of art he imbibed in Italy. An injury, received by knocking his head against a beam while showing a new tennis-court to the Queen, caused his death in 1498.

Louis XII. (1498-1515).—Louis of Orleans, casting the serpent's skin he had worn but retaining the wisdom ascribed to that reptile, now succeeded as Louis XII. Obtaining a dispensation from the Pope to put away his wife, he married Anne of Bretagne, the widow of the late sovereign. Claiming the two Sicilies, he, in conjunction with Ferdinand of Aragon, invaded Italy, and in 1499 forced Frederic of Naples to surrender. But a quarrel arose between France and Spain regarding the partition of the conquest, and the superior craft of Ferdinand induced Louis to weaken his forces, so that, in spite of the devotion of the Chevalier Bayard and others, the Spanish Captain Gonsalvo drove the French from Naples. Louis had engaged to marry his daughter to the grandson of Ferdinand; but an assembly of the French people, convened at Tours, absolved him from the neces-

sity of fulfilling this promise, and gratefully calling him "the Father of his People," requested him to bestow the hand of the princess on the Duke of Angoulême, afterwards Francis I.

Julius II., more a warrior than a Pope, after vainly striving to rid Italy of foreigners by embroiling the French and Spaniards, joined the Emperor and them in the *League of Cambray* against Venice (1508). Louis overthrew the Venetians at Agnadello, but the defeated Italians made submission to the Pope, who won the Spaniards over and turned against the French. Then, like a bright but fleeting meteor, came the splendid campaign of Gaston de Foix, who conquered Italy in a single season, and died in a blaze of victory at Ravenna in 1512. The success, however, melted into nothing; for the French could not keep Italy.

When death deprived him of Anne of Bretagne, Louis married the Princess Mary of England, sister of Henry VIII., a gay young creature of sixteen, who loved dances and shows; and in three months his death left her a widow.

Francis I. (1515-47) is prominent in history as the contemporary of Henry VIII. of England and Charles V. of Germany. Lured by the deceitful lustre of Italian conquests, he invaded that land in 1515, won the battle of Marignano, and reduced Milan.

His vanity was sorely hurt in 1519 by the election of Charles of Spain to the Empire; for he had sought that high station himself. Francis and Charles, thus pitted against each other, courted Henry of England. Francis met him at the Field of the Cloth of Gold; Charles negotiated more quietly and cheaply in England, and bribed Wolsey by promising to use his influence in the next election for Pope.

Francis made an enemy of the Constable de Bourbon, who fled from France and intrigued with the Spaniards and Italians. The renegade drew the sword in Northern Italy. To him was opposed Boniviet; but this leader was driven across the Ticino. In the battle at the bridge, the celebrated Bayard, last of the Knights, was killed by a bullet in the side. Francis chased Bourbon, who had reached Marseilles, back into Italy, and with a splendid army laid siege to Pavia. There in 1525 he suffered

a terrible defeat from the Imperialists, losing too his freedom; for he was made prisoner. His despatch to his mother
1525 has made famous the words "All is lost but honour." In
 A.D. about a year the signature of a paper, making concessions, gained his release from Charles; but the people of France refused permission to carry out the concessions thus extorted.

In 1529 the Emperor and the French King agreed to peace at Cambray. It was called "The Ladies' Peace," being negotiated by their sisters.

In 1536 Charles attempted the invasion of France; but was forced to retreat by the desolation of a wasted land, which supplied no food; and most of his soldiers perished miserably among the Alps.

The fourth war between Charles and Francis, in which Solyman of Turkey was the ally of the latter, and Henry of England the ally of the former, caused France to be invaded both from England and from Spain. But the combatants ceased from strife and made a treaty at Crespy (1544), in order that they might together turn against Protestantism. The Pope summoned the great Council of Trent; and Francis let loose the terrors of persecution on the Albigenes. The end came in 1547, a year which saw both him and Henry of England die.

Henry II. (1547-59) persecuted the Protestants relentlessly. His leading generals were the Constable Montmorency and the Duke of Guise. The latter taught Charles V. a severe lesson at Metz, round which the Emperor poured his legions in vain in 1552. It was during this reign (1558) that Mary Queen of Scots was married to the Dauphin. Ere this Spain and England—united by the marriage of Philip II. to Mary I.—had defeated Montmorency at St. Quentin (1557). But the capture of Calais from the English, which Guise achieved in mid-winter by crossing the frozen marshes (1558), amply atoned for this defeat. Henry was killed at a tournament held in honour of the marriage of Mary to the Dauphin. While tilting with a Scotchman named Montgomery, a splinter of his opponent's lance passed through his eye into his brain.

Francis II. (1559-60) reigned nominally for seventeen months, during which the Guises, uncles of the Scottish Queen, ruled supreme, and persecution raged against the Protestants. The Huguenots, as French Protestants were called, had lately received into their ranks the King of Navarre, Condé his brother, and Admiral Coligny; and preparations were made by the Guises for trying some of them, when Francis died suddenly.

Charles IX. (1560-74), a younger son of Catherine de Medicis, then became King; his Italian mother acting as Regent. The struggle between Protestants and Roman Catholics now grew to a crisis. Catherine moved like a dark spirit between the factions of Guise and Condé, pretending to grant privileges to the Huguenots but secretly hating them with a bitter hatred, following them, as has been said, "as a shark follows a vessel through calm and storm expectant of its prey."

Orléans became the head-quarters of Condé; but he was soon made prisoner in the battle of Dreux (1562). The siege of Orléans was interrupted by the assassination of Guise. Montmorncy fell in 1567 at St. Denis; and the Huguenots lost their great leader Condé in 1569 at Jarnac. The Peace of St. Germain en Laye (1570), giving certain privileges to the Protestants, cast a doubtful gleam of hope on their affairs; but the shadow of a tragedy, more terrible than any that had yet befallen the cause, was darkening on the horizon. This was the **Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day** (Aug. 24th 1572). Instigated by his mother, Charles sent soldiers at midnight, who, beginning with Coligny, murdered 10,000 Huguenots in Paris during the succeeding week. In the rest of France 70,000 perished. Eighteen months later, Charles, who was tortured with memories of this carnage, died at the age of twenty-five.

Henry III. (1574-89), formerly Duke of Anjou, had a year earlier been elected King of Poland. He now stole out of his palace and rode off to be King of France. He was an effeminate and dissolute man. The Huguenots recovered spirit and strength, when Henry, King of Navarre, who had been in custody since the massacre, escaped and rejoined their ranks. Then was formed

The Holy League (1576), to extirpate the Huguenots and place Henry of Guise on the throne when a vacancy occurred. The struggle that ensued has been called the *War of the Three Henrys*—Henry the King, Henry of Guise, Henry of Navarre. Paris having declared for Guise, the cruel King enticed him to a conference at Blois, where he was murdered at the door of the audience-chamber. The King, deserted by his disgusted people, was now joined by Henry of Navarre, who forthwith besieged Mayenne in Paris. Into the besieging camp came a Jacobin friar, named Clement, with a knife in his sleeve; and, seeking an audience of the King to deliver letters, he gave the monarch a mortal stab (1589). Thus perished the last of the royal Valois race.

HOUSE OF BOURBON.

Henry IV. (1589–1610) was the first monarch of the Bourbon branch of the Capet line. Before he could consider his throne secure, there lay before him the task of crushing the League, of which dark Mayenne was now the great soldier. His victories at Arques and **Ivry** shattered its power. The latter **1590** victory (1590), which has been celebrated in Macaulay's **A.D.** stirring verse, displayed conspicuously the personal valour of the King, whose white plume was a star of hope to his soldiers.

In order to gain over the partisans of Rome, Henry, acting on Sully's advice, recanted his Protestantism. But he did not forget those whose ranks he had deserted. In 1598 he published the **Edict of Nantes**, granting right to hold office and liberty of worship to the Protestants. The Peace of Vervins closed his war with Spain.

The rest of his reign—twelve years—was given to reforms in taxation and general government. In the former his great aid was Sully. The intrigues of Biron, a favourite marshal, who deservedly forfeited his life for his treason, scarcely marred the general calm.

His later years were given to the formation of a grand "*Political Design*," which was to produce a balance of power in Europe

by clearing the overweening greatness of the Hapsburgs, who in Spain and Germany swayed the destinies of more than half Europe. A vacancy in the dukedom of Cleves set the King and the Emperor in opposition, Henry supporting a Protestant candidate. But the dagger of Ravallac, who stabbed him through the glass of his carriage-window, on the eve of his departure for the Rhine to head his army, cut short his mighty schemes for ever. He was only fifty-seven.

Louis XIII. (1610-43) was only nine when his father died. His mother, Mary de Medicis, was appointed Regent, and by the departure of Sully from court, was left to depend upon favourites. Eleanora Concini and her husband gained the supremacy, and the young King was kept a sort of prisoner in the gardens of the Tuilleries, where De Luynes taught him to fly hawks.

The nobles, headed by Condé, formed an association for the *Public Good*. In 1617 Concini was murdered; the queen-mother was sent to Blois; and Eleanora, supposed to be a dealer in witchcraft, was torn to pieces by the Paris mob. De Luynes was then first favourite. But one of the greatest men France has produced soon appeared.

This was Cardinal Richelieu, otherwise Jean Armand Duplessis, who when Bishop of Luçon had attracted attention by a speech he made in 1614 at the meeting of the States-General. He was then twenty-nine: at thirty-seven he was a Cardinal, and at thirty-nine (1624) he was ruler of France!

His chief domestic object was the crushing of the Huguenots. He paralyzed their power for a time by the taking of La Rochelle, their stronghold, whose harbour, imitating Macedonian Alexander at Tyre, he blocked up with a strong dike of stone.

The principal aim of his foreign policy was the humiliation of Austria. This he accomplished partly by giving his aid to Gustavus Adolphus in the Thirty Years' War: and after the death of that hero France took the field directly as one of the combatants of the struggle.

The power of the nobles was always hostile to Richelieu; but his stern resolve and deep craft thwarted all their schemes against

him. When he got them in his grasp he did not spare, as Montmorency, Cinq-Mars, and De Thou—all of whom were executed for plots against him—bitterly experienced.

In 1642 this great Cardinal died. He was the founder of the French Academy and the Palais Royal. Five months later died the nobody who wore the crown.

Louis XIV. (1643–1715) occupied the throne of France for the extraordinarily long period of seventy-two years. But of these about fifty-four may be regarded as forming the actual reign (1661–1715). Another Cardinal, Mazarin by name and an Italian by birth, became the Prime Minister of France. His share in the 'Thirty Years' War was marked with two defeats of the French armies—at Düttlingen and Friburg. The civil war of the *Fronde* began in 1648, and lasted for six years. It was a struggle between the court and the people: the great Condé sided for a time with the King; and there was much changing of sides, but Mazarin finally triumphed (1653).

France at this time was engaged in a Spanish war, in which Marshal Turenne opposed Condé, who had sold his sword to Spain. During the struggle, which desolated the Low Countries, Dunkirk was taken by the French and given to Cromwell as a recompense for the aid he had afforded.

The defeat of Louis in 1658 in his aspirations towards the Empire filled his heart with hatred of Austria.

The death of Mazarin, who left enormous wealth, occurred in 1661. A great financier named Colbert then undertook the management of affairs.

The ambition of Louis soon involved Europe in war. Claiming the Spanish Netherlands, he invaded Belgium, and frightened England, Sweden, and Holland into forming the Triple Alliance. But a soldier—William of Orange—was growing up to oppose him. With Condé and Turenne Louis invaded the Low Countries in 1572; but he was met by the foaming waters, which rushed through the opened sluices over the land. The Peace of Nimeguen was made in 1678, and then there was a lull for eleven years.

In 1685 Louis XIV. revoked the **Edict of Nantes**; and the

ferre persecution that arose drove the Huguenots with their industry and skill to enrich other lands.

The war re-opened in 1689, after William of Orange had been called to the English throne. Admiral Tourville defeated the Dutch and English ships off Beachy Head, and the French took Namur. But in 1692 Russell inflicted a terrible defeat upon the French navy off Cape La Hogue.

Though beaten by Luxembourg at Steinkirk and Neerwinden, William III. of England ultimately took Namur, and forced Louis into making the *Treaty of Ryswick* (1697).

There was another great war, in which Louis was the moving spirit—the *War of the Spanish Succession*. The French King named Philip of Anjou as the successor of Charles II. of Spain: the Archduke Charles of Austria appeared as a rival for the throne.

In the course of this war, which raged in Belgium, Spain, and Bavaria, as well as by sea, Marlborough won those great victories already named in the reign of Queen Anne, while the victory at Vigo and the capture of Gibraltar added new laurels to those won by England at sea.

The Treaty of Utrecht closed the war (1713); and in the following year the Peace of Rastadt, completing the European arrangements, was concluded.

Louis XIV., whom his flatterers called *Le Grand*, died in 1715. Molière, Corneille, Racine, and a host of other eminent literary men lived during his reign. It was a time of artificial manners: and this influence spread beyond France, affecting even our English life and letters for the better part of a century.

Louis XV. (1715–74) being only five years of age, the Regency fell into the hands of the dissolute Duke of Orleans, whose adviser was the Cardinal Dubois, a fitting associate. These rulers were attracted by a golden scheme, devised by a Scotch adventurer called John Law, who proposed to issue paper money on the security of certain mines by the Mississippi. All France went mad with speculation: but the Mississippi Bubble burst (1719), as the South Sea Bubble burst in England in the following year, and thousands were ruined.

The deaths of Orleans and Dubois in 1723 left Louis ruler at the age of fourteen. Louis of Bourbon, the new minister, caused the King, having sent back a princess of Spain, to marry Marie, daughter of Stanislaus, the discredited King of Poland. Cardinal Fleury soon became minister, and cherished peace until 1733, when the fiery young blood of France, fevered by the witty writings of Voltaire and others, found occupation in a war, undertaken to place Stanislaus on the throne of Poland. But three years' fighting ended in France guaranteeing the succession of Maria Theresa, in whose favour her father, the Emperor Charles VI., had revoked the Salic Law by an Act called the *Pragmatic Sanction*. But when the Emperor died (1740), in the war which arose to wrest Maria Theresa's dominions from her, France forgot her guarantee, and opposed the Princess, whose story shall be told afterwards. England, defending Maria's rights, defeated a French army at Dettingen, when our King George II. was under fire (1743); and, two years later, Louis was present at the victory of Fontenoy, won by his troops over the English under the Duke of Cumberland (1745).

In America England was meanwhile seizing Cape Breton and other French possessions; and in India, Dupleix, Governor of Pondicherry, was dreaming of imperial power in India—a dream never to be realized.

The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) gave rest to Europe for a time. But soon the *Seven Years' War* (1756-63) broke out. It belongs rather to Prussian history. France however was embroiled in it chiefly as the antagonist of England, whose schemes against French power in India and North America were beginning to wear the colours of success.

With the exception of the capture of Minorca by Richelieu (1756), the French arms enjoyed no success in this war, which raged, so far as France was concerned, chiefly in North America and along the Rhine. She lost Canada and her West Indian possessions; her armies were driven back over the Rhine by the English and the Hanoverians; and in 1759 were signally defeated at Minden—a battle which saved the Electorate of Hanover.

The Peace of Paris (1763) left France shorn of great possessions, and heavily laden with new taxes.

The remaining eleven years of the reign were filled with iniquitous jobs to raise money, which was squandered in vice. In 1769 Corsica became a French possession, its struggle for liberty under Paoli having come to an end: and in that same year the rocky island gave birth to a child, whose fate was bound up with the future history of France.

Louis XV. died, worn out with debauchery, in 1774.

Louis XVI. (1774-1793).—We now reach the most terrible and tragic period of French history—although that history is by no means barren in tragedy. The splendid habits of the young royal couple—Louis and his wife Marie Antoinette, Maria Theresa's daughter—were extremely unfavourable to the payment of the enormous debt left by their predecessor on the throne. Minister succeeded minister—Necker, Calonne, Brienne, Necker again; but all in vain. The national difficulties grew worse, and in 1789 exploded in Revolution.

The French Revolution (1789-95) began, when the *tiers état*, refusing to be separated in the meeting of the States-General from the nobles and bishops, formed themselves into the *National Assembly*. The mob without, hearing that soldiers were coming to dissolve this body, rose, and stormed the prison called *Bastille* (July 14, 1789). In October a mob sacked the palace at Versailles. Next year (1790), acting chiefly under the sway of Mirabeau, the Assembly reorganized the Constitution; but the death of Mirabeau (1791) brought chaos.

The Constituent Assembly gave place (Oct. 1, 1791) to the Legislative Assembly. But Austria and Prussia marched to the rescue of the French King. This kindled the mob. The Tuilleries was stormed, and the King imprisoned. Meanwhile, Danton defeated the advancing armies at Jemappes (1792).

Before this France had been made a Republic—the Assembly giving place to the National Convention, of which Danton, Marat, and Robespierre were the leaders. A time of blood and terror was inaugurated by the execution of Louis XVI. by the

guillotine (Jan. 21, 1793). The Jacobins turned on the Girondists, and slew without mercy. The Queen was beheaded; and the mob glutted their cruel eyes with the spectacle of bleeding heads.

Meantime the Royalists were in arms in Vendée and the south. At Toulon the cannon of the Republic were successfully directed by Colonel Bonaparte. The death of Robespierre by the guillotine marks the end of a period, justly called *The Reign of Terror*.

Louis XVII. died in the Temple, wasted by suffering and privation, at the age of ten (1795).

In that year the Convention was succeeded by the *Directory*, during the establishment of which Napoleon Bonaparte, 1795 being placed in charge of the artillery, tore a hostile crowd A.D. to pieces with grape-shot. The peal of this cannonade may be regarded as the knell of the Revolution Period.

Henceforward for twenty years Napoleon Bonaparte, to whose birth in Corsica allusion has been made, is the central figure in French history.

In 1796, appointed General of the Army of Italy, he achieved in that and the following year a succession of the most brilliant victories. And yet he was only twenty-six. Lodi, Arcola, Rivoli were among the battles, in which he scattered the Austrian armies. Having overthrown the Government of Venice, he made the Treaty of Campo Formio (1797).

His next military expedition was to Egypt, *en route* as he fondly hoped to India. But Nelson destroyed his fleet at the Nile, and he was repulsed from Acre. Returning home, he overthrew the Directory, clearing the hall with soldiers, and he then became First Consul (1799). Remembering the national passion for military glory, it is easy to understand how this great military genius became the idol of the French nation. Austria was at first his great foe. Undertaking a second Italian campaign, he crossed the Alps in 1800, emulating Hannibal's achievement; and inflicted a great defeat upon the Austrians at Marengo. Beaten in the same year (1800) at Hohenlinden,

they were glad to conclude the Treaty of Luneville (1801). In the following year the Peace of Amiens, between France and England, enabled Napoleon to gather new strength.

In 1804 he assumed the title of Emperor with the consent of the nation. Recognizing in Britain the rival he had most cause to dread, he revolved a plan of invading that island, but was baffled chiefly by the vigilance of Lord Nelson, who guarded the Channel with eagle-watch.

The star of Napoleon shone brightest in the victory of Austerlitz, where he defeated a host of Austrians and Russians (Dec. 2, 1805). Under his control the ancient 1805
Empire of Germany was then merged in a new Empire A.D.
—that of Austria—which began to exist in 1806.

In order to secure his hold on various countries, he placed friends and relations on the thrones. Joseph was made King of Naples; Louis, King of Holland; Murat, Grand Duke of Berg.

Having subdued Austria, he set himself to humble Prussia. The battle of Jena (1806) crushed the power of that nation, and opened a path of triumph into Berlin. Thence he issued decrees ordaining that no British goods were to be received into the ports of the Continent.

In the battles of Eylau and Friedland he repulsed the Russians (1807): but in the following year his attempt to place Joseph on the throne of Spain excited the Peninsular War, in which the Duke of Wellington so signally defeated his most skilful generals. The Emperor was so much occupied elsewhere, that he left this war almost entirely to his marshals.

A last hostile effort of Austria to resist the conqueror's power ended in utter prostration at the village of Wagram near Vienna (1809); and the humbled Hapsburgs were glad to give this Corsican soldier of fortune a wife from their princely ranks. Ditching the faithful Josephine, he married Maria Louisa in 1810. His annexment of the Papal States and seizure of the Pope soon followed.

But retribution came. In 1812 he invaded Russia, intending to winter at Moscow; but, when he reached that central city, it

broke into flame, and he was forced to order a retreat. History has nothing more terrible than the story of that struggle with the horrors of a Russian winter. Of more than half a million, he could muster only a few thousands, as the frontier was repassed.

At Leipsic in 1813 he made a final stand against the allied hosts, sternly gathered to crush his overweening ambition; and in 1814 by a movement of the Allies on Paris was forced to abdicate, and was imprisoned in the small Italian island called Elba. After ten months in Elba Napoleon escaped. Landing near Cannes, he pushed on to Paris, whence Louis XVIII., who had returned to the Bourbon throne, fled to Ghent. A Congress was sitting at Vienna, which from its central position has been often selected for such meetings; and the task of reconstructing the map of Europe, so rudely shaken and altered by the ex-Emperor, was going merrily on, when this news came. It is said to have been greeted by the assembled diplomatists, first with a silent stare of incredulity, and then with a roar of laughter.

But Napoleon was in Paris, levying troops: action must be prompt and decisive. Resolved to deal first with the armies nearest to him, Napoleon invaded Belgium, where Wellington and Blücher lay. And there at Waterloo—a field
 1815 A.D. which the French call Mont St. Jean—he was signally and finally defeated by the British and the Prussians (18th June, 1815).

In the October of the same year he was landed on the island of St. Helena, where he died in 1821 of an ulcer in the stomach. His last words, spoken as he lay dying amid the crash and glare of a tropical thunder-storm, were suggestive: "*Tête d'armée.*"

Louis XVIII. (1814–24).—The nine years between Waterloo and the death of this King were spent in efforts to establish a parliamentary government in France. Magnificent orations shook the House of Assembly with the thunders of applause they drew forth; but there was an element of change and storm still brooding. The only military enterprise of note was a successful expedition into Spain under the skilful Duke d'Angoulême for the purpose of reinstating the King Ferdinand, who had

been dethroned by a revolution of Liberals. Louis XVIII. died in 1824, and was succeeded by

Charles X. (1824-30).—Absolutism now set in. Laws were prepared to alter trial by jury and to crush the liberty of the press. In vain the people expressed their opinion by shouts of "No Censorship;" they were scornfully rebuked by the King, who was possessed of an obstinate blindness to results that reminds us much of the Stuart infatuations. While the struggle between despotism and freedom was proceeding, with an ever-growing Liberal majority in the Chamber of Deputies, an expedition was successful in wresting Algiers from the pirates, who had been long the scourge of the Mediterranean.

The **Second French Revolution (1830)** deprived Charles X. of his throne. Excited by three foolish Ordinances, repressing liberty of speech and freedom of election, the people of Paris mounted the tricolor cockade, tore up the pavements to erect barricades, and made themselves masters of the city. The Duke of Orleans, Louis Philippe, was elected King of the French, while Charles found refuge in Holyrood at Edinburgh.

Louis Philippe (1830-48).—The Citizen King, as the newly-elected monarch was called, gradually acquired position, especially by the recognition of England. The rising, excited in favour of her son by the Duchess of Berri, failed. But the life of the King was attempted more than once, notably by Fieschi, who caused the explosion of a shell on the Boulevards, killing fourteen persons, but not injuring the King.

A nephew of the great Emperor, by name Louis Napoleon, the son of the King of Holland, now began to be heard of. He had one fixed idea—that he was destined to be Emperor, as his uncle had been. In 1836 he made an attempt to excite insurrection at Strasbourg; but it failed, and he was permitted to go to America. After a residence in England he made a second effort—this time at Boulogne; but he was arrested, tried, and committed to prison at Ham. After six years he escaped to England, whence he returned after the Revolution had opened his way to the throne.

The reign of Louis Philippe, whose avarice was insatiable, dissatisfied the people, and estranged, by political trickery, Britain and other nations that had been friendly at first. At last the growing discontent came to a head; and he was expelled from the throne (1848).

The **Third French Revolution** was excited by a refusal of the Government to permit a Reform banquet on George Washington's birthday. The King found a refuge in England, where he died.

Louis Napoleon, elected for the department of Seine, was voted President of the Republic in 1848. Three years later (Dec. 2, 1851), by a *coup d'état*—that is, a massacre by military force and a midnight arrestment of his opponents—he gained possession of Paris, which was only a step towards his election as Emperor (Dec., 1852).

In 1854 the French and the English united in the Russian War. The siege of Sebastopol was carried on by them in conjunction; but the chief glory of reducing this great stronghold belongs to our Gallic neighbours. The decisive *coup* was the storming of the *Malakoff* on the 8th Sept. 1855. Marshal Pelissier was then in command of the French forces—St. Arnaud having died, and Canrobert having resigned.

While Britain and France united in a Chinese war in 1858, a conspiracy, of which Orsini was the leader, aimed unsuccessfully at the life of the Emperor by the explosion of shells.

In 1859, war having arisen between Austria and Sardinia, the French Emperor in person took the field in Northern Italy as the ally of the latter state. Humbled at Montebello, and on the greater fields of Magenta and Solferino, Austria sought peace, which was concluded at Villafranca. The province of Lombardy was ceded to France, and by that nation transferred to Sardinia. But as a recompense, France received Savoy and Nice.

In the autumn of 1860 Peking surrendered to the combined forces of England and France, which had already gained several victories over the Chinese; and in 1864 the same allies, in conjunction with the Dutch and the Americans, forced the Straits of Simono in Japan. Such expeditions have tended greatly to open

to the influence of civilization those remote Oriental countries, which have been sealed up against foreign commerce by the jealousy of their rulers.

In the spring of 1867 a rupture seemed imminent between France and Prussia, regarding Luxembourg, which Holland proposed to sell to France. Prussia would not withdraw her garrisons, until the neutrality of the state was guaranteed.

MODERN FRENCH CHRONOLOGY.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY, A.D.

	A.D.	
League of Cambray,	1508	... Louis XII.
Gaston de Foix killed at Ravenna,	1512	—
Truce of Pavia,	1525	... Francis I.
Defence of Metz by Guise,	1552	... Henry II.
Battle of Jarnac,	1569	... Charles IX.
Martyrdom of St. Bartholomew's Day	1572	—
The Holy League,	1576	... Henry III.
Battle of Ivry,	1590	... Henry IV.
Edict of Nantes,	1593	—

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY, A.D.

Annulment of Richebourg,	1624-42	... Louis XIII.
Stops of La Rochelle,	1623-9	—
Reign of Louis XIV.,	1643-1715	... Louis XIV.
Peace of the Pyrenees,	1659	—
Peace of Aix la Chapelle,	1663	—
Peace of Nimwegen,	1678	—
Battle of La Haye,	1692	—
Treaty of Ryswick,	1697	—

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY, A.D.

War of Spanish Succession,	1701-13	... Louis XIV.
Treaty of Rastatt,	1714	—
Mississippi Bubble,	1719	... Louis XV.
Battle of Dettingen,	1743	—
Battle of Fontenoy,	1745	—
Second Treaty of Aix la Chapelle,	1748	—
Seven Years' War,	1756-63	—
Peace of Paris,	1763	—
Great French Revolution,	1789-95	... Louis XVI.
France a Republic,	1792	—
Execution of King Louis XVI.,	1793	—
Reign of Terror,	1793-4	... Anarchy.
Napoleon First Consul,	1799	—

NINETEENTH CENTURY, A.D.

	A. D.	
Peace of Amiens,	1802	... Anarchy.
Napoleon I. becomes Emperor,	1804	... Napoleon I.
Battle of Austerlitz,	1805	—
Disastrous Russian Campaign,	1812	—
Battle of Leipsic,	1813	—
Napoleon in Elba,	1814-15	... Louis XVIII.
Battle of Waterloo,	1815	—
Invasion of Spain,	1823	—
Second French Revolution,	1830	... Charles X.
Third French Revolution,	1848	... Louis Philippe.
Louis Napoleon Emperor,	1852	... Napoleon III.
Fall of Sebastopol,	1855	—
Campaign of Magenta and Solferino,	1859	—

HOLLAND AND BELGIUM.

In the earliest centuries of the Christian Era the swamps and sand hills of the Netherlands were held by three tribes—Batavi, Belgæ, and Frisii, names which still exist in Batavia (capital of the Dutch Asiatic colonies), Belgium, and Friesland. These wild people lived a seafaring life as fishermen and pirates. About the sixth century the Franks overran the country; and it was made in 843 by the Treaty of Verdun a part of Germany. Petty princes, among whom the most powerful were the Bishop of Utrecht and the Counts of Flanders, ruled it for the period (1000–1300), after which it was absorbed into the spreading Duchy of Burgundy under Philip the Bold, Philip the Good, and Charles the Bold. Its cities—such as Brussels, Ghent, Mechlin, and Antwerp—had already begun to grow rich and strong by trade and manufacturing industry.

We have seen how Charles the Bold, the last Duke of Burgundy, fell in battle with the Swiss; and how his daughter, Mary of Burgundy, married Maximilian of Austria. The latter event brought the Netherlands under the dominion of Austria in 1477.

When the great Emperor Charles V., who was Maximilian's grandson, reigned, the Seventeen Provinces were, by virtue of an arrangement called the Pragmatic Sanction (1548), annexed to

the German Empire under the name of the *Circle of Burgundy*. It was however under Philip II. of Spain, the son and successor of Charles, that the provinces emerged into great historical prominence.

The principles of the Reformation having taken firm hold in the rich and freedom-loving cities of the Netherlands, Philip, who was a bigot of the worst type, attempted to crush the newly-born Protestantism by introducing the terrors of the Inquisition. The Dutch nobles—whom scornful courtiers nicknamed the *Beggars*—protested; and the people soon secured their protest by insurrection. The Duke of Alva repressed the rising with massacre, Counts Egmont and Horn paying for their patriotism with their heads. This braced the spirit of the Dutch, who found a worthy leader in William of Orange, called in history the Silent. The defence of Leyden, which was saved by cutting the dikes and flooding the Spanish trenches (1574), was a great blow to Spanish pride and power. William was made Stadtholder of the Republic, and Protestantism was established, the Union of the Provinces being accomplished by the *Pacification of Ghent* (1576). The struggling Dutch were enabled to confirm their constitution in 1579, when the *Union of Utrecht* 1579 formed the seven northern provinces into the Dutch Re- A.D. public under the presidency of William as Stadtholder.

This great prince was, by a base subterfuge of Philip, assassinated at Ghent in 1584 by a pistol-shot.

Maurice (1585–1625), his second son, was elected in his stead. The war with Spain continued to rage in the southern provinces, where the Duke of Parma made himself master of Antwerp. The decay of prosperity in this city was beneficial to the commerce of Amsterdam. Aid was given to the Republic by England in this war. The Earl of Leicester led an army to Zutphen, near which Sidney received his mortal wound. In 1600 Maurice defeated the Spaniards at Nieuport. Then was formed the siege of Ostend (1601–1604), a city which Spínola, the Spanish General, took with great difficulty at the cost of much blood. His experience in this hopeless war induced

him to represent the impossibility of subduing the Dutch; and in 1609 a twelve years' truce was made, recognizing the right of the Dutch to carry on a trade with India, which they had established, and from which they already were deriving great profits. A Dutch East India Company had been established in 1602.

A religious dissension troubled the Dutch Republic after this time, when Barneveldt, an advocate of Arminianism, was opposed to Maurice, who upheld Gomer, a champion of Calvinism. The Stadtholder, having convoked a National Synod at Dort, caused his opponent to be executed for "vexing the Church of God."

The extension of colonial dominion in the Eastern Seas brought English and Dutch into collision at Amboyna, one of the Molucca Islands, rich in cloves. So hot did the contention grow that a number of English were seized, tried, and executed, for an alleged conspiracy to expel the Dutch from this island. This affair has been dignified by being named "The Massacre of Amboyna." Maurice died in 1625.

Under **Frederic Henry** (1625–47) the Spanish war went on, in conjunction with Dutch conquests in South America and Ceylon. In 1639 the Admiral Van Tromp gained a great naval victory over the Spaniards in the Channel.

William II. (1647–1650).—The Peace of Westphalia (1648) secured the final acknowledgement of the independence of the Dutch Republic by Spain. The ten provinces in the south (Belgium) remained under the rule of Spain, until the Treaty of Rastadt transferred them to Austria.

After the death of William II. (1650) the office of Stadtholder was abolished for the time. While Cromwell ruled England, the English and Dutch fleets contended at sea, Blake being opposed to Martin Van Tromp and De Ruyter. An Act having been passed to exclude the House of Orange from holding supreme power, and the control of the provinces being vested in the States-General, which were swayed entirely by John de Witt, Grand Pensionary of Holland, Charles II. of England engaged in a war, nominally in behalf of his little kinsman, afterwards William III. of England, really however to secure the chance of some

money for his own pleasures. In this war (1664-67) a great disgrace fell on England, when De Ruyter entered the Thames and burned the shipping at the Medway. Charles after this was only too glad to make the Treaty of Breda (1667), by which the possession of New York (previously called New Amsterdam) was secured to Britain.

At this time De Witt induced the States-General to pass the *Perpetual Edict* (1667), abolishing for ever the office of Stadtholder. He also formed the Triple Alliance with England and Sweden, being alarmed at the ambition of Louis XIV. Charles of England however changed sides, and Louis overran the Dutch provinces (1672); upon which the Perpetual Edict was repealed, and William of Orange (son of William II. and afterwards King of Great Britain) was made Hereditary Stadtholder. This triumph of the Orange party was stained by the massacre of the De Witts. Cornelius being imprisoned on a charge of aiming at William's life, John, his brother, resigned his office, and went to receive his brother as he came out of prison. The mob set upon the carriage in the streets of the Hague, and murdered both the brothers (1672).

William III. (1672-1702) found himself at once obliged to face Louis le Grand, who crossed the Rhine in 1672; and for a time it seemed likely that the Dutch would be forced to open the sluices and flood their fields in self defence. They had, however, a refuge in their navy, suppose the worst should come. Though seldom victorious, William contrived to hold his own, and to impress the French King with a feeling, like that which Spinola had expressed, that it was impossible to crush the spirit of these sturdy mariners. The Treaty of Nimeguen was made in 1678.

When William of Orange became in 1688 King of England, he rejoiced in the opportunity of exercising greater resources in the opposition of Louis. The war, in which the battles of Steinkirk and Neerwinden, and the siege of Namur were the most notable events, ended in 1697 by the Treaty of Ryswick, after having proved fruitful in nothing but the display of William's military genius and the establishment of our gigantic National Debt.

For some time after William's death there was no Stadtholder, the share which Holland took in the War of the Spanish Succession being directed by the Grand Pensionary Heinsius. The Treaty of Utrecht and the Barrier Treaty of 1715 gave to Holland a line of frontier fortresses, which were afterwards taken by the French.

From this time Holland sank into the position of a secondary European State. In 1747 the office of Stadtholder was revived in the person of **William IV.** (1747-51); but he did not enjoy it long.

William V. (1751-95).—During the minority of this prince, Holland, by maintaining a wise neutrality in the Seven Years' War, grew quietly rich and prosperous. But after 1766, when William assumed power, the republican or anti-Orange faction, which had never died, became most troublesome. Their sympathies, in the American War, lay against Britain, with which country a war took place in consequence.

By means of a Prussian army (William had married a Prussian princess) the House of Orange was reinstated after having been driven from the Hague. But the success of the French Revolution kindled the flame of republicanism in the Netherlands high and bright. Pichegru and Jourdan, leading the army of the French Republic, overran Holland, drove the family of Orange from the land, and opened the way for the erection of the *Batavian Republic* (1795).

This drew down the wrath of Britain, by whom Holland was stripped of some valuable colonies such as the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, and Demerara; and in 1797 Admiral Duncan inflicted a severe defeat on the Dutch navy off Camperdown.

The English and the Russians then seized the shipping at the Texel, after which a convention at Alkmaar arranged terms for the evacuation of Holland by those triumphant enemies.

Holland, after the rupture of the Treaty of Amiens, was forced—as a weak neighbour may be forced by a strong—to side with Napoleon in his schemes of conquest. This of course put the Dutch in opposition to the British, who continued to strike at

the most vital part of the strength of Holland—her rich and numerous colonies.

In 1806 the Batavian Republic was changed into the Kingdom of Holland, on the throne of which Napoleon put his brother Louis. But in 1810 Louis, whose government was too liberal to please his iron brother, abdicated in favour of his son; an arrangement however which did not suit Napoleon's plans. Holland was therefore for a time annexed to France.

In 1813, when Europe was breaking the Napoleonic chains, Holland rose in revolution, and recalled the House of Orange, making William Frederic ruler with the title of *Sovereign Prince*; under whom, after the French had been beaten at Antwerp and a treaty of peace, with some restitution of conquests, had been made with Britain, the Congress of Vienna (1815) decreed the union of the Seventeen Provinces (Holland and Belgium, which had been separated for two centuries) under the name of the Kingdom of the Netherlands.

This union lasted for fifteen years; but in 1830 the Belgians, who are French in their language and their manner of life, followed the example of France, and by a revolution established their independence. After Louis Philippe of France had refused to permit his son to fill the throne of the new kingdom, the honour was offered to Leopold, a German prince, who held the crown until 1865, when his son Leopold II. succeeded him quietly.

The Netherlands (as the Kingdom of Holland is now called) are ruled by William III.; and enjoy a quiet, untroubled, money-getting existence.

MODERN CHRONOLOGY OF HOLLAND AND BELGIUM.

	A. D.
Mary of Burgundy marries Maximilian of Austria,	1477
Revolt in the Northern Provinces,	1566
Union of Utrecht—Dutch Republic constituted	1579
William the Silent assassinated,	1584
Spain declares the Dutch independent,	1609
The Perpetual Edict,	1607
Murder of the De Witts,	1672
William of Orange hereditary Stadtholder,	1674

	A. D.
William Becomes King of England,	1689
French under Pichegru overrun Holland,	1793
Batavian Republic formed,	1795
Battle of Camperdown,	1797
Kingdom of Holland under Louis Bonaparte,	1806-10
House of Orange restored,	1813
Receives the title of King,	1815
Belgium made an independent Kingdom by a Revolution,	1830

DENMARK (to the Present Time).

The *Union of Calmar* (concluded in 1397) was dissolved, by the triumph of Swedish struggles for independence, in 1523, when Frederic I., Duke of Schleswig and Holstein, was made King of Denmark and Norway. Under his auspices the principles of the Lutheran Reformation spread in Denmark.

His son, Christian III., besides obtaining from Norway an acknowledgement of the supremacy of Denmark "for ever," annexed the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein to the Danish crown (1533). A code of law, styled the *Pecess of Kolding*, belongs to this reign.

The reign of **Christian IV.** (1588-1648) derives importance from the share he took in the struggle of the Thirty Years' War. There had grown up a keen rivalry between Denmark and Sweden—all the keener because they were such close neighbours, and because both claimed a right to take toll from passing vessels at the Sound. Now there was need of a Protestant champion; and Christian hurried to arms in order to be beforehand with the Swedes. He was opposed at first by Tilly, who defeated him at Lutter in Hanover (1626), and afterwards found the peninsular portion of his country overswept by the Imperial forces under Wallenstein. So complete was his humiliation that he gladly acceded to the terms of the *Peace of Lubeck* (1629). Later in his reign (1643), Christian joined the war on the opposite side, in order to check the encroachments of Sweden; but the Swedes, under Torstenson, aided by the Dutch, forced him to a peace, and to make various concessions—giving to Sweden,

the islands of Gothland and Oesel—to Holland, a reduction of the Sound duties.

Frederic III. (1648–70) engaged in wars with Sweden, the disasters of which, coupled with the tyranny of the nobles, induced the Danish people, assembled in the National Diet of 1660, to confer absolute and hereditary powers upon the Sovereign.

The troubles of Danish history during the eighteenth century arose chiefly from her desire to possess the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, lying on the neck or isthmus of her peninsular dominion. Having formed an alliance with Louis XIV., the Danes secured Schleswig in 1684; but it was not for nearly a century later (1773) that Holstein was securely and finally annexed, Russia receiving in lieu of that duchy, on behalf of the heir, Oldenburg and another county.

The eighteenth century was spent in growing prosperity by Denmark. Trade was encouraged; and some colonies were acquired. Under ministers like Bernstorff intellectual pursuits were cherished, and vassalage was gradually abolished: the latter good work being begun by Christian VII. in 1767. Liberty of the press was also granted, though somewhat restricted afterwards. But at the opening of the present century, Denmark, whose chief strength lay in her navy and her position as gate-keeper of the Baltic, became embroiled with England, then beginning to be engaged in her deadly struggle with Napoleon.

In 1800 Britain, exercising a right she claimed of searching certain ships, took a Danish frigate, which had resisted. The vessel was afterwards released; but Denmark joined with Russia, Prussia, and Sweden, in a paction called *The Armed Neutrality of the North*, formed against the naval power of Britain. Admiral Nelson retorted, on the part of Britain, by attacking the Danish fleet in the harbour of Copenhagen, under the fire of the batteries on shore, and destroying it at a blow (1801).

In 1807 the Treaty of Tilsit contained a secret article, promising to give up the Danish fleet to the victorious Napoleon. Having heard of this, the British Government resolved to be beforehand with those trying to outwit them; and, accordingly,

Gambier and Cathcart bombarded Copenhagen, until the fleet of thirty-three ships was surrendered. A war ensued, in which Denmark was stripped of several colonies; but the *Peace of Kiel* (1814) restored all but the islet Heligoland, still in possession of the British. At the same time Denmark received Pomerania instead of Norway; but in 1815 she yielded this province to Prussia, receiving in lieu of it the Duchy of Lauenburg.

As the present century grew older, it became more and more evident that Denmark and the Duchies must separate; for the laws of royal succession differed in the two countries; and the people of the Duchies were in language and national sympathies far more German than Scandinavian.

The year 1848, which kindled revolutionary fire through all Europe, excited the Duchies to struggle for their independence, in aiming at which they received aid from Prussia. But Austria threw her weight into the opposite scale, and thus the day of separation was postponed.

It came in 1864, when Prussia and Austria in alliance crossed the Eider into Schleswig and drove the Danes from a rampart called the Dannewerk. The fortress of Duppel was also taken; and so much loss inflicted on Denmark that she consented to part with the three Duchies, which were incorporated with Prussia. The war of 1866, afterwards described, may have consoled Denmark somewhat.

The marriage of the Prince of Wales in 1863 to Alexandra, daughter of the Danish King, Christian IX., united Denmark to England, as the countries had been previously united twice; for James I. married Anne of Denmark, and Queen Anne married Prince George also of that country. The present royal family of Denmark indeed has since been suddenly lifted from semi-obscurity: for George, the brother of the Princess of Wales, was elected in 1863 to the throne of Greece; while Dagmar (now Maria) has lately been married to the Czarewitch, the heir of Russia. The Princess of Wales was wrongly styled by Tennyson, in his *Ode of Welcome*, a "daughter of the Sea-Kings:" she is a German princess of the House of Oldenburg.

MODERN CHRONOLOGY OF DENMARK.

	A. D.
Union of Calmar dissolved,	1524
Christian IV. joins in the Thirty Years' War,	1625
Danish crown made absolute and hereditary,	1660
Holstein and Schleswig taken by Frederic IV.,	1716
Copenhagen bombarded by Nelson,	1801
Second bombardment of Copenhagen,	1807
Revolt of the Danish Duchies,	1849
Denmark loses the Duchies,	1864

SWEDEN AND NORWAY (to the Present Time).

The deliverance of Sweden from the tyranny exercised by Christian II. of Denmark was wrought by Gustavus Erickson, commonly called **Gustavus Vasa**.

In 1521 Christian, who had imprisoned Erickson, massacred the flower of the Swedish nobles, among them slaying the father of his captive. But Gustavus escaped from prison, and wandered among the mountains of Dalecarlia, working as a miner, and undergoing perils of death and capture. Once, when he was hidden in a cart of straw, the Danish soldiers plunged their spears into the straw, and, though a point pierced his thigh, he never moved; so they passed on. Collecting an army, he soon moved towards Stockholm, which he took after three sieges (1523). Gustavus refused the crown at first; but at length, seeing political intrigues still rife, he assumed the state of a monarch (1527).

His reign of thirty-three years (1527-60) was signalized by the adoption of the Lutheran doctrines, and the raising of Sweden to a high place among the powers of Europe.

Four names—the cruel Erik; John, favourer of Catholicism; Sigismund, who was also King of Poland through his mother; and Charles IX., elected in room of the last named King, who was deposed by a civil war—carry us on to the glorious reign of **Gustavus Adolphus** (1611-32).

This great prince, whose measures were aided and carried out by his minister, Oxenstiern, at first engaged in war with Russia

and Poland, which he stripped of valuable possessions. But it was as Captain of the Protestant cause in the Thirty Years' War, after the failure of Christian IV. of Denmark, that his genius displayed its full lustre.

Having, perhaps with some presentiment of his coming fate, committed his little daughter, aged four, to the care of the assembled States of Sweden, he crossed the Baltic to Rugen (1630). The battle of Leipsic—a glorious victory for Sweden—a disastrous defeat for the Austrians under Tilly—secured the freedom of Germany (1631). But the following year was fatal to the Swedish hero. Wallenstein pitched his camp **1632** by **Lutzen**; and there Gustavus attacked him. The A.D. Swedish victory was signal and complete; but the Swedish King, riding with careless courage too near the enemy, was shot dead (1632).

Christina (1632–54) was educated like a man—taught from earliest childhood to listen without fear to the roar of cannon. She studied Hebrew, Greek, and politics; and rode, shot, and hunted in the dress of a man. Oxenstiern managed the Regency wisely: in 1644 she took the reins herself. She engaged in a Danish war (1643–45); and by the Peace of Westphalia (1648) obtained Pomerania, Rugen, Bremen, and other territories. She then devoted herself to the profuse patronage of art and literature; but tired of “splendid slavery,” she abdicated—being then only twenty-eight—in favour of her cousin, the Count Palatine of Deux-Ponts.

She lived to the age of sixty-three, principally at Rome and in France, engaging in political intrigues and literary pursuits. She put her master of the horse, Monaldeschi, to death, for some fault, alleging her power as a Queen to do as she pleased with her servants. Her change to Roman Catholicism greatly displeased the Swedes.

Charles Gustavus X. (1654–60) fought with Poland, but gained most distinction by his movements against Denmark. Marching from Poland to Holstein, and crossing the ice of the Belt (1657), he inflicted such loss on Denmark as led to the

Peace of Brömsebo (1658), which made him master of Scania, and other portions of the Scandinavian peninsula held by the Danes. But a repulse at Copenhagen, where Prussians and Dutch assisted the Danes to resist him, is said to have hastened his death by mortifying his ambition and vanity.

Charles XI. (1660-97), when in 1672 he became free from the control of guardians, ruled with wisdom. In the first year of his reign (1660) the *Peace of Oliva* put an end to a war of succession, which had been raging intermittently for sixty years. The Swedes acquired Livonia, while the Poles gave up all claim to the crown of Sweden. Charles was involved by the craft of Louis XIV.—that arch-disturber of European peace during his own century—in a war with Prussia, by which he was stripped of Pomerania—a territory, however, restored by the peace of Fontainebleau (1679). An important domestic change reached its crisis during this reign. A struggle between the King on the one hand, supported by the masses of the people, and the Senate and nobles on the other, ended in 1693, when the Diet by a formal act declared Charles absolute. His whole reign was prosperous—debt was lessened, manufactures improved, and foreign trade much advanced. He died in 1697.

Charles XII. (1697-1718), surnamed "The Madman of the North," succeeded his father at the age of fifteen. His history is that of a monarch, so devoured with a passion for military glory, as to forget the higher duties of a crown. Charles, however, was forced into his first war by the coalition of Denmark, Poland, and Russia, to dismember and share amongst them his kingdom of Sweden. This was called *The Northern War*. He first defeated the Danes, and then inflicted a great defeat upon the Russians at Narva near the Gulf of Livonia (1700). Augustus, Elector of Saxony, was then King of Poland; and as a revenge for the share which this prince had taken in the scheme against Sweden, Charles, during three campaigns, dethroned him, and crowned in his stead Stanislaus Leczinski (1704). The invasion of Saxony by Charles completed the humiliation of Augustus.

Then began a great struggle between the two heroes of the

North—Charles XII. of Sweden, and Peter the Great of Russia. Of the latter more will be said in a succeeding chapter. Charles in 1707 invaded Russia with 80,000 men, resolved, as he boastfully said, to “treat with Peter nowhere but at Moscow.” Peter laid waste the land, and waited. Snow, icy winds, hunger, sickness harassed the Swedish army on their march; 1709 and, when their number was reduced to 18,000; and these A.D. were engaged in the siege of **Pultowa**, Peter came up with fresh troops, and utterly routed the Swedes (1709).

Charles took refuge in Turkey; and at first the Sultan made war with Russia on his behalf. But he afterwards quarrelled with his host, and yet refused to leave Turkey. Meanwhile, Peter secured Livonia and Finland, while Prussia and Denmark took possession of the Swedish provinces south of the Baltic. The last exploit of Charles, in which his former foe Peter was an ally, was an attack on Norway. But at the siege of Frederickshald (1718) he was killed instantly by a shot striking his head. He was only thirty-seven years of age.

The sister of Charles XII. was elected Queen; but in 1720 she resigned her throne to her husband, Frederic of Hesse-Cassel (1720–51). Under this sovereign Sweden lost her position as a great power in Europe. The *Treaty of Nystadt* (1721) made over a considerable portion of territory to Russia. Domestic politics were troubled by a contest between two factions—the *Hats*, a party with French leanings; and the *Caps*, inclined to Russia. Nevertheless the country flourished, and the researches of Linnæus in botanical science added lustre to the reign. The Hat party having gained the upper hand, there was a war with Russia (1740–43), which country, at the Peace of Abo, obtained part of Finland.

The reign of **Adolphus Frederic** (1751–71) gave rise to commercial companies, trading to the East Indies and the Levant. No war of consequence occurred except the embroilment of Sweden in opposition to Prussia in the Seven Years' War. This was owing to the influence of the *Hats*.

Gustavus III. (1771–92) overturned the old constitution by

military force. The States were to make laws, but these were to originate with the Throne. However, in a Russian war, which arose in 1788 for the assistance of the Turks, the officers mutinied, because their orders to take the field had not proceeded from the States. This event caused the Diet to confer on the King a power of making war at his own discretion; the Senate was abolished at the same time. Gustavus III. was assassinated in 1792.

Under Gustavus IV. (1792-1809) Sweden suffered such reverses at the hands of France and Russia, especially in 1807-8, that a number of military officers combined to effect his dethronement. This was easily effected, as he had shown signs of mental derangement. Charles XIII. was then made King (1809-18).

In 1809 the *Peace of Frederickshamm*, made with Russia, stripped Sweden of Finland and Bothnia. The circumstances of the country were such that it became necessary to appoint an heir to the throne, who should govern with vigour. The States selected Bernadotte, Prince of Ponte-Corvo, one of Napoleon's marshals, for this high position, which he accepted, and became Crown Prince of Sweden (1810). He was a native of Pau, had fought at Austerlitz and Wagram, but had attracted notice in Sweden chiefly by the wise and temperate use he made of his command in North Germany. Henceforth Bernadotte was the real ruler of Sweden.

Napoleon made immediate demands upon Sweden, which, in the interests of the country he had come to govern, Bernadotte refused to grant. This led to a rupture. In 1812, French troops invaded Swedish Pomerania, upon which Bernadotte entered into alliance with Britain and Russia. At the head of "the Army of the North" the Crown Prince, during 1813, defended Berlin by defeating Oudinot and Ney, and took a prominent share in the decisive battles of Leipzig. He then defeated Davoust and the Danes, forcing the latter to the conclusion of the *Peace of Kiel* (1814), by which Sweden obtained Norway. An effort on the part of Norway to establish independence under Christian Frederic of Denmark was subdued; and in 1814, Norway, re-

taining the rank of a separate kingdom with its own constitution, was formally joined to the Swedish crown. Charles XIII. died in 1818, when the Crown Prince succeeded as

Charles XIV. (1818-44).—Having been solemnly crowned at Stockholm and Trondjhem, this ex-marshal of France, trained in the camp, and used to war from his boyhood, beat his sword into a ploughshare, and devoted himself to works of peace. Indeed in his opening speech, when appointed Crown Prince, he had indicated his sense of the miseries of war in the impressive words, "No conquest can console a country for the blood of its children shed in a foreign land." Swedish commerce and agriculture flourished greatly during the twenty-six years of this reign. The *Gota Canal*, uniting the Baltic and Black Seas, was opened in 1832.

Oscar I. (1844-59), the son, and **Charles XV.**, the grandson of Bernadotte, have reigned since his death. The latter now occupies the throne of Sweden and Norway.

MODERN CHRONOLOGY OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

	A. D.
Revolution under Gustavus Vasa,	1521-3
Gustavus Adolphus killed at Lutzen,	1632
Abdication of Christina,	1654
Peace of Oliva (Sweden and Poland),	1660
Reign of Charles XII.,	1697-1718
Battle of Narva,	1700
Battle of Pultowa,	1709
Treaty of Nystadt (Sweden and Russia), ;	1721
Finland ceded to Russia,	1809
Bernadotte made Crown Prince,	1810
Treaty of Kiel places Norway under the Swedish crown, ..	1814
Bernadotte made King,	1818
He dies,	1844

GERMANY (1493 to the Present Time).

Maximilian I. (1493-1519), the husband of Mary of Burgundy and the son of Frederic III., became Emperor of Germany in 1493. To the wisdom of this prince Germany owed much. He divided his empire into six Circles—Franconia, Bavaria,

Snabia, the Rhine, Westphalia, and Saxony; to which were afterwards added four other Circles—Austria, Burgundy, Lower Rhine, and Upper Saxony. He also organized a standing army, with the three branches of military service—horse, foot, and artillery—in complete equipment. But what gives its chief interest to the reign of this Emperor is the beginning of the **Reformation** in Germany.

Martin Luther, a native of Eisleben in Saxony, while at college at Erfurt, found in the library a Latin Bible, which gave light to his mind. Afterwards appointed Professor at Wittenberg, his anger was roused by the sale of indulgences, issued by Pope Leo X. for the purpose of raising money to build St. Peter's Church at Rome; and (1517) he nailed *ninety-five Theses* on the church door at Wittenberg, attacking these papers as impostures, utterly unavailing to save the soul. At Leipsic (1519) he disputed with Eck; and in 1520 he burned a Papal bull, issued against him by Leo, casting the document into a fire of wood in presence of many people of Wittenberg.

Charles V. (1519–58).—Summoned to the *Diet of Worms* (1520), Luther appeared before the Emperor Charles V., who had succeeded his grandfather Maximilian in the previous year; nor could all the wrath and scorn he was subjected to shake the courage of the monk, though sickness had assailed him on the way, and the terrors of persecution for heresy loomed dark before him.

It may be well, in order to avoid the chance of confusion, to state shortly the other leading events of the Reformation in Germany, though in so doing many years of the reign of Charles V. must be anticipated.

The friendly arrest of Luther, after the Diet of Worms, and his confinement at Wartburg, it is supposed, by the Elector of Saxony, afforded him an opportunity of translating the Bible into German. In 1525, his marriage with a nun severed him still more widely from the Church of Rome. The *Protestants* first received their distinctive name in 1529 at Spire, when they protested against a Roman Catholic decree. And at Augsburg in 1530 they published their *Confession of Faith*, a document drawn

up by Luther and Melancthon jointly. They then at Smalcald formed a league, which showed such determination that the Emperor, bent upon warlike schemes, cancelled his earlier edicts against them.

Charles V. had been for three years King of Spain, with the title of Charles I., when he was elected to the Empire. Besides Spain, he possessed Austria, the Netherlands, and Naples. Ere long he engaged in war with Francis I. of France, who had been a candidate against him for the Empire. A sketch of this war has been already given.

About 1524 the *Peasants' War*, caused by the Anabaptists, desolated the Rhenish provinces; and in 1535 there was another Anabaptist outbreak, of which the centre was Munster, called by them Mount Zion.

Charles V. did good service as the opponent of the Turks, who, having seized Belgrade and other forts on the Danube, had invested Vienna—1529. In 1535 he defeated the pirate Barbarossa at Tunis; but at Algiers in 1541 he underwent great loss and disgrace.

The great *Council of Trent*, which was convened against Protestantism, and in whose discussions the new sect called Jesuits took a leading share, began its sittings in 1545, and continued to sit for eighteen years.

Towards the end of Charles' reign he published an edict called the *Interim*, which was offered as a settlement of the religious troubles rending the nation. But it did not succeed. The Protestant cause was upheld by Maurice of Saxony, once a deserter from its ranks, who, however, now concluded an alliance with France, and took up arms against the Emperor. By a quick movement upon Innspruck this active prince almost made Charles a prisoner. The *Treaty of Passau* (1552), confirmed three years later by a Diet of Augsburg, secured the safety of Protestantism.

In 1556 the Emperor Charles V. resigned his sceptre to his brother Ferdinand, and retired to the cloister of St. Yuste in Spain, where he died in 1558.

Ferdinand I. (1558–64) asked Pope Paul IV. to crown him;

but the Pontiff refused, because Charles had abdicated without Papal consent. Paul's successor acknowledged Ferdinand as Emperor; but the dispute had the effect of causing the Electors to abolish the custom of asking the crown from the Pope's hands, instead of which a letter of compliment was to be forwarded to the Vatican. Ferdinand endeavoured to act as mediator between the Protestant party and the Council of Trent; but the elements were incapable of union. It may be noted that after the resignation of Charles V. the House of Hapsburg divided into two great branches, one of which, descending from Charles V., ruled in Spain, while the other, tracing their lineage from Ferdinand, held sway in Germany and Austria.

After the wise reign of **Maximilian II.** (1564-76), whose temperate treatment of both sides soothed the religious animosities of the time, came **Rudolf II.** (1576-1612), under whom were sown the seeds of a great European war. This Emperor was under the influence of the Jesuits; and the feeling between Catholics and Protestants soon took a hostile shape in the formation of two associations—the *Evangelical Union* under Frederic of the Palatinate, and the *Catholic League* under Maximilian of Bavaria (1610).

Under **Matthias** (1612-1619) a contest for the crown of Bohemia caused that great struggle, **The Thirty Years' War**, to begin. The claimants for the vacant throne were Frederic, Elector Palatine, whom the people of Bohemia, very Protestant in their feelings, had elected; and Ferdinand, Duke of Styria, one of the Hapsburgs, whom the Emperor wished to foist upon the unwilling land. The war opened in 1618.

Ferdinand II. (1619-37) gained a great advantage by his elevation to the imperial throne. The first battle—at the White Mountains near Prague (1620)—almost annihilated the hopes of the Protestant cause. For a time Mansfeldt held out for Frederic, but the Bavarian general, Tilly, defeated him. As already described, Christian IV. of Denmark took an unsuccessful part in the war as the champion of the Protestant cause.

His great foe Wallenstein, who had conquered the peninsula

of Denmark, was dismissed by the Emperor through the intrigues of Richelieu, who artfully induced Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden—nothing loath to undertake the task—to assume the command of the Protestant armies.

The campaigns of Gustavus contain the central interest of the war. Landing at Rugen (1630), he made his way to Frankfort, which he took. The massacre at Magdeburg by Tilly—an act of brutal vengeance—soon followed. At Leipsic, however, this cruelty was punished by Gustavus, who there defeated the perpetrator most signally (1631). After taking Frankfort and Mentz, the Swedes invaded Bavaria and took Munich: the Saxons had already seized Prague. Then Wallenstein was called from his retirement and invested with the supreme command of the armies of Spain and Austria. After watching each other at Nuremberg, within which the Swedish King intrenched himself for some time, the armies met on the memorable field of
1632 **Lutzen**, twelve miles from Leipsic. There the Swedes
 A.D. obtained a glorious victory; but the triumph was saddened by the loss of their King (1632).

Oxenstiern, chancellor of Gustavus, then took the conduct of the war. Wallenstein was assassinated at Eger (1634); and in the same year the Swedes suffered a great defeat at *Nördlingen*. The time now seemed to Richelieu fit for his movements; and he took the field against Spain, besides aiding the Swedes in Germany.

Ferdinand III. (1637–57) succeeded his father; and the war still lingered, Bernard of Weimar fighting on the Protestant side, Banner and Torstenson leading the Swedish armies. The French suffered a great defeat at *Düttlingen* (1643). The war was ended in 1648 by the **Peace of Westphalia**, which was signed at Munster. Among the terms of this treaty, which was the basis of our map of Modern Europe, were these: That the French should hold Alsace—that Holland should be free—that the Swiss Cantons should be also free. The war had desolated Germany—the treaty stripped the German Empire of its old power and splendour.

Leopold I. (1658–1705) reigned for nearly half a century. His principal wars were with the Turks and France. In a contest with the former (1661–64), the Imperial general *Montecuculi* gained a decisive victory at St. Gothard. This captain was afterwards matched against Turenne and Condé in the wars which arose with Louis XIV., and he displayed a masterly caution, which often saved him from ruinous defeat. The peace of Nimègue gave a little rest to the armies of France and the Empire.

In 1683 a great host of Turks, whom Louis XIV. had incited to an attack upon Austria, gathered round Vienna, from which Leopold fled. The heart of the Empire was endangered. But John Sobieski mustered an army and marched to the Danube. The Turkish intrenchments seemed to his despairing eye too strong to be attacked with any hope of success; but, when the Polish King saw the Vizier calmly sipping coffee at his tent-door within the seemingly impregnable line, his wrath was roused; a rush of Polish lanciers cleared the way for the infantry, and the camp was taken by storm. Having thus relieved Vienna, Sobieski chased the Turks back to the country they had made their own.

In 1688–9 the French ravaged the Palatinate with fire and sword; and an array of allies, among whom was Germany, were arrayed against Louis and his marshals. This was the war in which William III. of England took so prominent a share. It was closed by the *Treaty of Ryswick*.

Prince Eugene of Savoy was the great soldier of the Empire at this time. Having fought at Vienna in the relief just described, he commanded against the French in Piedmont. At *Zenta* on the *Theiss* he won a great victory over the Turks (1697), which resulted in the Peace of Carlowitz. But he took a still more prominent part in the War of the Spanish Succession. After two campaigns in Piedmont against the French, he was worsted in the battle of *Luzara*; but his share in the success of *Blenheim*, where he led the imperial troops, atoned for this. The Emperor Leopold I. died in 1705.

Joseph I. (1705–11) reigned for six years, during which the great war of the Spanish Succession continued to rage. Eugene, commanding in Italy again, won the battle of Turin (1706), which obliged the French to evacuate Piedmont. He afterwards fought at Oudenarde, Lille, and Malplaquet, receiving a wound in the last-named field.

Charles VI. (1711–40) was the last of the Austrian Hapsburgs. He had contested the crown of Spain, when Archduke Charles, with Philip of Anjou, the nominee of the Bourbons. The Treaty of Rastadt, a supplement to the Treaty of Utrecht, waived the claims of Charles to Spain, but gave him Naples and Sardinia.

In 1716 the Emperor joined Venice in a war with the Turks. Here Prince Eugene once more distinguished himself by defeating the Ottomans and taking Belgrade. The *Peace of Passarowitz* (1718) terminated this war.

In 1724 Charles published a will called the **Pragmatic Sanction**; but it must be noted that this name is applied historically to certain other laws. This document decreed that, male issue failing, the inheritance of the Austrian dominions should, after Charles' death, revert to his daughter Maria Theresa. Most of the European powers, except France and Spain, agreed to this arrangement.

Charles VI. engaged in two other wars. In a Polish War in 1733 he upheld the claims of Augustus of Saxony to the crown of Poland, in opposition to Stanislaus Leczinski, who was supported by France. The Peace of Vienna (1735) confirmed the succession of Augustus, making Stanislaus ruler of Lorraine. A Turkish War, in which Belgrade, Servia, and Wallachia were lost to Austria, began in 1738, but was closed in the following year by the Treaty of Belgrade. Charles VI. died in 1740.

Immediately upon the death of Charles, states, which had guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, forgot the fact that they had done so. There was a general movement to strip Maria Theresa of her dominions. Britain alone remained faithful to her. Prussia demanded Silesia; Bavaria desired to have Bohemia and the

purple. A war of the *Austrian Succession* began (1740). Frederic of Prussia defeated the troops of Maria at Mollwitz and Czaslau, and obliged her to yield Silesia. The Elector of Bavaria in 1742 became Emperor as **Charles VII.** (1742-45), and, with aid from France, advanced within a short distance of Vienna. Maria Theresa fled to Presburg, the ancient capital of Hungary, and there flung herself upon the loyalty and pity of the Magyars. Dressed in mourning, with her baby in her arms, she came into the hall where the Diet was assembled, and told the Hungarian nobles that she had no resource but their loyalty. With one accord they drew their swords and shouted, "*Moriamur pro rege nostro Maria Theresa!*" This turned the tide; the Bavarians and French were driven back.

But Prussia, anxious to save Silesia from re-capture, came again into the field, invading Bohemia. Frederic, however, made the Peace of Dresden with Maria in 1745. Dettingen and Fontenoy, which have been already noticed, belong to this war, in which Britain upheld, while France opposed, the cause of the Austrian princess.

Charles VII. died in 1745, when the husband of Maria Theresa, Francis of Lorraine, Grand Duke of Tuscany, was elected Emperor.

Francis I. (1745-65). In spite of the successes of France in the Netherlands, affairs tended towards peace; and the probability of aid from Russia being afforded to Austria, caused the conclusion of the *Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle* (1748).

The **Seven Years' War** (1756-63) occupied a great part of Francis' reign. This contest has been already alluded to, but this is the fittest time to detail the events of the campaigns.

In 1756 the Prussians, invading Saxony, occupied Dresden; they also defeated the Austrians at Lowositz. The second was the greatest campaign of the seven. Its leading events were the battle of Prague, a Prussian triumph; and the two great victories also won by Frederic at Rossbach and Leuthen. In 1758 the Prussian King defeated the Russians at Zorndorff; in 1759 they repaid the loss by routing him at Kunersdorf. The fifth

campaign (1760) may be regarded as the final one. During that year the Prussian King bombarded Dresden, and defeated Austria at Liegnitz and Torgau. Utterly exhausted, Frederic remained in his intrenched camp in Silesia, uncertain what the future might bring, when the death of the Empress of Russia broke up the alliance against him. The *Peace of Hubertburg* (1763) was made between Austria and Prussia—a peace having already been concluded at Paris by England, France, and Spain.

Francis I. died in 1765.

Joseph II. (1765–90) was the eldest son of Maria Theresa. He inaugurated many reforms, but they were not of a popular kind. So long as his mother lived—she died in 1780—he did not possess full control of affairs. His edict of toleration, applying to all religions (1781), was one of his most noted measures. Frederic of Prussia kept his warlike movements in check.

The reign of **Leopold II.** (1790–2) was noted for the wholesale abolition of most of the reforms established by his predecessor. In 1791 he concluded the Treaty of Pillnitz with Prussia against France.

Francis II. (1792–1806) found himself at once involved in war with France. Belgium was the first theatre of action. There in 1792 Dumouriez defeated the Austrians at Jemappes, but was himself defeated in the following year at Neerwinden. In 1794 the French marshals Pichegru and Jourdan were triumphant in the Netherlands. But all their successes were outshone by the brilliant victories of young Bonaparte in Italy during the year 1796. Driving the Archduke Charles into Styria, and Würmser into the Tyrol, the Corsican soldier forced Austria into concluding the Treaty of Campo Formio (1797), which gave Belgium to France in exchange for Venice.

Second War.—In 1799 Austria and Russia, in alliance with England, renewed the war—at first with considerable success in Italy and Germany. But Napoleon's fortune became ascendant again. He won the battle of Marengo (1800); and in the same year his general Moreau, defeating the Austrians at Hohen-

lines, opened the way to Vienna, whose fall was averted only by the Peace of Lunaville (1801).

Third War.—A new coalition of Austria, Russia, and England now took place. But nothing could withstand Napoleon's resistless march. He was now Emperor, and in the Cathedral of Milan (1805) he assumed the old iron crown of the Lombards—a sign that he regarded himself as the successor of Charlemagne. His successes, dimmed at sea by Nelson's sad glory of Trafalgar, began to wane. Mack, an Austrian general, was forced to surrender at Ulm with 30,000 men. The French entered Vienna, and the battle of the Three Emperors, the great victory at Austerlitz, whose sun he was afterwards wont grandiloquently to invoke in general orders, gilded his sword with its chief splendour (1805). The Treaty of Pres-
A.D. burg closed this war.

A great change in the constitution of Germany now took place. Bavaria and Wurtemberg were erected into kingdoms. The ancient German Empire, which had stood the storms of a thousand years, was dissolved; and most of the states were merged into the *Confederation of the Rhine*, with Bonaparte as Protector. Two years earlier, Francis II. had constituted Austria an hereditary empire; this was now (1806) confirmed. As a specimen of Napoleon's stern dealing with those who suffered their patriotism to run counter to his schemes, we may notice the execution of Palin, a bookseller of Nuremberg, who had circulated a pamphlet deploring the humiliation of Germany.

Out of certain German states Napoleon, in 1807, formed the kingdom of Westphalia for his brother Jerome.

Fourth War.—In 1809 Austria began a fourth war with Napoleon. It reached a speedy close. The field of Eckmühl—the occupation of Vienna—the great battle of Wagram—were steps of victory leading to the Treaty of Vienna, and the marriage of the victor to an Austrian wife.

Two names are distinguished for personal daring at this time. One was *Andreas Hofer*, an innkeeper of the Tyrol, who headed an insurrection of the peasantry against the Bavarians, to whom

that province was transferred by the Treaty of Presburg. Three times, with aid from Austria, this daring leader defeated the French and Bavarians; but at last he was betrayed, and shot by Napoleon's order at Mantua (1810). *Schill*, a Prussian major, led a Free Corps against the French; but he was slain at Stralsund.

Napoleon made use of his Protectorship of the Confederated States of the Rhine to raise levies for his Russian war; but after the disasters of the march to and from Moscow Northern Germany rose in revolt, the Duke of Mecklenburg being the first to throw off the yoke and join the Allies. Davoust plundered Hamburg. The battle of Dresden was fought. Then followed the greater battle of Leipsic, in which Bonaparte was
1813 utterly routed after three bloody days (1813). He was
 A.D. driven across the Rhine, and the Confederation dissolved, one state following another in seeking alliance with the enemies of the Corsican. The Allies then entered Paris, and the Congress of Vienna met to arrange the affairs of Europe.

In 1815 the Germanic Confederation was formed, its central Assembly being the Diet, which sat at Frankfort-on-the-Main.

The revolutionary movements of the year 1848 affected Germany. A contest for supremacy in the affairs of the Confederation arose between Prussia and Austria; indeed the rivalry between the two Powers had been growing for generations. Prussia proposed a casting aside of all local and petty independencies, and the establishment of a united nation under one supreme control. An assembly at Frankfort made the Archduke John Regent of the German Empire; but at a later sitting Austria was voted out of the Empire, and the King of Prussia was made hereditary *Emperor of the Germans* (1849)—only, however, by the votes of half the meeting. The absurdity of any change under these circumstances soon became manifest.

But Prussia was merely obliged to wait a more fitting time. This came in 1866, when, as will be seen in the sketch of Prussian history, the defeat of Austria in the Six Weeks' War gave Prussia the ascendancy in Germany, and added very considerably to Prussian territory. By the Treaty of Berlin (1866)

the states have been grouped into two sets—North Germany and South Germany, divided to some extent by the river Main. North Germany contains twenty states under the guidance and control of Prussia. South Germany contains six under the nominal supremacy of Bavaria. Austria since this time has had no share in the affairs of Germany; and Prussia is clearly ambitious to monopolize the entire management of the Confederation.

MODERN GERMAN CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.
Protestant Reformation begins,	1517
Reign of Charles V.,	1519-56
Confession of Augsburg,	1530
Council of Trent,	1545-63
Treaty of Passau,	1552
Thirty Years' War,	1618-48
Battle of Prague,	1620
Battle of Lützen,	1632
Peace of Westphalia,	1648
Sulistaki saves Vienna from the Turks,	1683
Pragmatic Sanction (Charles VI.),	1724
War of the Austrian Succession,	1740-5
Seven Years' War,	1756-63
Battle of Rossbach,	1757
Austria makes an hereditary Empire (Francis II.),	1804
Battle of Austerlitz,	1805
Ancient German Empire dissolved; Confederation of the Rhine formed,	1806
Congress of Vienna; Germanic Confederation,	1815
Six Weeks' War expels Austria, giving Prussia the ascendancy,	1866

PRUSSIA (1525-1701).

The germ of the mighty Kingdom of Prussia, which took its name from the Borusi, a fierce Slavonic tribe, was the Duchy of Brandenburg. Between 1525 and 1640, the latter being the date of the accession to power of Frederic William, the Great Elector, this state, lying between Sweden and Poland, and to some extent overshadowed by their superior greatness, was yet gaining strength and widening its bounds.

Frederic William the Great (1640-88) found his Electorate wasted, disordered, and impoverished in the extreme, by the ex-

actions of Wallenstein during the 'Thirty Years' War. After reducing abuses and restoring order, he turned to his neighbours. From Poland he obtained an acknowledgement of his title as Hereditary Duke of Prussia, that province being as yet in subjection to the Electorate of Brandenburg. This was confirmed by the Treaty of Wehlau, concluded with Poland in 1657.

Oliver Cromwell was so conscious of the services rendered by the Great Elector to the Protestant cause that he sent letters of congratulation and compliment to Prussia.

In 1672 Frederic William formed an alliance with Holland against France. In 1675 Louis XIV. induced those old foes of Prussia—the Swedes—to invade Pomerania, in order to make reprisals on the Elector. But the invasion called forth Frederic's highest powers. A secret and sudden march brought him, with only 5000 men, face to face with a host of Swedes, numbering 11,000, whom he defeated at *Fehrbellin* (1675). Four years later, he carried his army in sledges over the frozen Frische Hafl, and, attacking the Swedes in their winter-camp, expelled them from the land (1679).

His devotion to the Protestant cause made his dominions the grand refuge of those Huguenots, who were exiled by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. He also protected the Waldenses.

Frederic III. (1688–1701) was the last Elector of Brandenburg. He aided William III. of England in his contest with Louis XIV., and the Emperor in a struggle with the Turks. When the War of the Spanish Succession began, he bargained with the Emperor to supply certain aid to the Austrian cause on condition of obtaining the crown of Prussia. This was consented to; and in 1701 Elector Frederic III. became King Frederic I. of Prussia,—an event which he commemorated by the institution of an order called "The Black Eagle."

PRUSSIA A KINGDOM (1701 to the Present Time).

Frederic I. (1701–13) enjoyed for twelve years a crown, to purchase which he had engaged to give assistance to Austria in

her way, and always to vote for Austria in the Diet. The former part of the promise was redeemed by his sending soldiers, who won laurels at Blenheim and other great fields. He died in 1713.

Frederic William I. (1713-40) was a stern economist, and hater of luxury. The Prussian army owes to him the institution of its admirable drill; and he surrounded himself with a body-guard of giants, whom he spared no expense—stopped at no means—to secure. A war with Sweden (1715) was one of the most important public events of his reign. His natural savageness of temper vented itself upon his son, who hated cordially the father. And yet that father, by drilling and disciplining a magnificent army, was preparing the means of making Prussia one of the greatest military powers in Europe,—a reputation she at present seems anxious to increase.

Frederic II. (1740-86), surnamed the Great, was twenty-eight years of age when he succeeded his father. He was so ill-treated in early life by his father, that with the aid of Katt and others he tried to escape to England. Being taken, he was imprisoned at Custring, and poor Katt was beheaded—a fate which, they say, would have befallen the prince also, but for the entreaties of the Austrian ambassador. He lived in retirement, chiefly at Rheinsberg, until his father's death. Voltaire was one of his chief correspondents.

He was scarcely settled on the throne, when the unprotected condition of Maria Theresa led him into the Silesian War (1740-42). A second war took place (1744-5). The third and greatest is known as the Seven Years' War, of which a sketch has been already given. Out of fourteen battles he won nine, fighting against the combined strength of Austria, the German Empire, Russia, France, and Sweden.

After he had set the domestic affairs of his realm in order, he turned his attention to Poland, then as always rent with internal dissensions, and therefore all the more liable to fall a victim to foreign greed. Forming an alliance with Russia, he took a share in the *First Partition of Poland* (1772), by which he gained the

greater part of Polish Prussia. It is said that this scheme was first formed by Frederic I. in 1710.

The Emperor, pleased with the results of this wholesale robbery, called in diplomatic phrase "partitioning," cast his eye on Bavaria as a likely spot for a repetition of the process. But Frederic stepped in, and by the Treaty of Teschen saved Bavaria. It became necessary, however, for Frederic afterwards, in order to secure that land from the Emperor's schemes, to unite the German princes in a league called the *Fürstenbund*. Frederic the Great died in 1786, aged seventy-five. Thomas Carlyle has written his History, selecting him as a hero for the characteristic reason "that he managed *not* to be a liar and a charlatan as the rest of his century was."

Frederic William II. (1786-97) was a decided failure as a successor of his great uncle. A foolish war with Holland—a couple of treaties with Austria—Reichenbach, 1790—Pillnitz, 1794—carry us on to his share in the Second and Third Partitions of Poland, by which Prussia gained large accessions of territory. His war with the Republic of France was closed by the Treaty of Basle.

Frederic William III. (1797-1840) had a long eventful reign. At first he sided with France, intending to add some of the smaller German states to his dominions. And in this he was partially successful, for the Treaty of Luneville gave him Hildesheim, Paderborn, and part of Munster. He joined the Armed Neutrality, which however was broken up by the murder of the Czar Paul. By negotiation with France, Hanover was made over to Prussia, which led to a war with England. But Napoleon heaped so many insults upon Prussia that there was a loud cry for war, which began in 1806. Within a month Jena was fought and Berlin entered by the French. Prussia then got aid from Russia; but this merely delayed the catastrophe. The battles of Eylau and Friedland sealed the fate of Frederic's kingdom: Napoleon entered Königsberg—the ancient capital—and by the Treaty of Tilsit the victor consented to give back to the defeated monarch part of his conquered kingdom. This was a terrible blow to

Prussia. Out of portions of the conquered territory Napoleon formed the Kingdom of Westphalia, and the Grand-Duchy of Warsaw.

For five years Prussia continued in subjection to Napoleon, and furnished a body of troops for the Russian campaign: but in the heat of conflict during the retreat the Prussian General York made a truce with the Russian leader to whom he was opposed.

In 1813 Frederic William issued a proclamation of war against France, announcing the resolve of Prussia to obtain either honourable peace or glorious destruction. He had previously made an alliance with Alexander of Russia. In this war the name of Marshal Blucher becomes prominent. So unbending was the courage of this now veteran soldier, that his King could find no better emblem to commemorate his deeds than an *iron cross*, with which he was accordingly decorated. Though Napoleon gained some successes at Lutzen and Bautzen, the Allies, among whom Blucher and his Prussians were foremost, defeated him in a series of battles, which culminated at **1813** A.D. **Leipzig, 1813.** The great semicircle of veterans, which Napoleon drew round this city on the north to cover it from the approach of the foe, was crushed, bent, and broken in three days of incessant fighting. It was Blucher who urged the Allies to push on to Paris, which he would have sacked with no remorse, had not milder counsels prevailed.

By the Congress of Vienna Prussia received part of Saxony, the Grand-Duchy of Posen, a large tract of Germany along the Rhine, and the province of Swedish Pomerania.

Blucher, the Prussian Marshal, was Wellington's ally in the three days' Belgian campaign. The veteran of seventy-three, fighting at ten in the evening at Ligny, had his horse shot, and was trampled under the hoofs of charging cuirassiers, so that a report of his death spread, much to the delight of Napoleon. Nevertheless he led his Prussians from Wavre to Waterloo on the glorious 18th of June, and aided to complete the final defeat of Napoleon. Blucher died in 1819.

Devoted to peace, Frederic William spent the rest of his reign in

endeavouring to repair the ravages Prussia had undergone during the desolating wars described. In 1815 he had made a promise to give a representative constitution to his whole kingdom; but this he never performed, although the people of Coblenz and other places remonstrated with him on the subject. He meant to do it, he said, when the right time came. He greatly advanced both German commerce and the influence of Prussia by the institution of that commercial league among the States, known as the *Zollverein*. He died in 1840.

Frederic William IV. (1840-61), a pupil of Niebuhr, succeeded his father. When a revolutionary movement arose during the troubles of 1848 at Berlin, he delighted the people by proposing a union of all German princes and peoples, with himself for guide; and, though this was not carried out, he calmed the tumults by appointing a popular ministry. Like his father, he objected to conferring a representative constitution on Prussia: "No piece of paper," said he, at a meeting of the United Diet for the first time, "shall come between me and my people." And, though he was led to make certain needed changes, he always tried to evade anything which would clash with his own despotic desires. He died in 1861.

William I., the present King of Prussia, succeeded his brother in 1861. The Danish War of 1864, already described, and the Six Weeks' War of 1866, have been the principal incidents of his reign.

In June 1866 Prussia and Italy declared war against Austria. For a time Austria had tolerable fortune. The Italians were defeated at Custozza by the Archduke Albert. But the Prussians, armed with the needle-gun—a breech-loading rifle of new construction—invaded Bohemia under the command of their King, and inflicted a signal defeat upon the Austrians, under Marshal Benedek at Sadowa, near Königsgrätz. Austria was obliged to sue for peace, which was concluded at Prague in August.

The Princess Royal of England, eldest daughter of Queen Victoria, is the wife of the Crown Prince, or heir to the Prussian crown, having been married to him in 1858.

PRUSSIAN CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.
Duchy of Prussia joined to the Electorate of Brandenburg,	1594
Prussia acknowledged the independence of Prussia,	1657
Battle of Paltzschin,	1675
Prussia made a kingdom under Frederic I.,	1701
Reign of Frederic the Great,	1740-86
Wounds sustained by Prussia,	1742
Seven Years' War,	1756-63
Peace of Hubertshurg,	1763
Defeat at Jena—Bonaparte in Berlin,	1806
Treaty of Tilsit,	1807
Battle of Leipzig,	1813
Waterloo,	1815
Revolutionary movement at Berlin,	1848
War with Denmark,	1864
War with Austria (Needle-gun),	1866

AUSTRIA AND HUNGARY.

As we have seen, Austria became an Empire in 1806. The House of Hapsburg had held sway over Hungary since 1527, although the free bold spirit of the nation, which had made it invaluable as a bulwark to defend Europe against the encroachments of the Turks, rebelled against the despotic rule of the Austrian dukes. Until 1711 Hungary was much troubled with Turkish wars and civil commotions; but after that date she enjoyed comparative repose, until killed by the revolutions of 1848.

When the news of the successful revolution in France reached Hungary, the people cried out for greater concessions than they had been already asking. Hungary and Transylvania were made one kingdom, and other changes followed, which roused the anger of Croatia. The Croats invaded Hungary—it is thought, with the secret good-will of the Emperor, who desired to play off the rival races against each other, weakening both. But Count Lemberg, a royal commissioner, was murdered at Pesth, which broke off all terms between Austria and Hungary. The Magyars appointed a *Committee of Defence*, with Kossuth as its

president. War began, Gorgei acting as general of one part of the patriotic army; while Bem, a Pole, commanded in North Transylvania. Both there and on the Theiss victory crowned the arms of Hungary; but discord among the leaders of the patriotic movement proved fatal to the cause. In 1849 Kossuth caused the independence of Hungary to be proclaimed; a measure which displeased the Hungarian officers, and excited Russia to join in alliance with Austria—for in Poland Russia had also a Hungary to be kept down. Gorgei refused to lay down the command of the army; and Kossuth, unable or unwilling to remove him, gave up his position and fled to Turkey. Upon this Gorgei surrendered his army; but many of the soldiers escaped to Turkey, where, through the interference of Britain and France, they were allowed to remain. A cruel round of executions succeeded; the land was placed under military rule; and only of late has the Austrian rigour begun to relax.

MODERN HUNGARIAN CHRONOLOGY.

	A.D.
Albert of Austria succeeds to the crown of Hungary,	1437
Battle of Mohacs: Turks victorious,	1526
Duke of Lorraine relieves Buda from the Turks,	1686
Hungary faithful to Maria Theresa,	1740
Protestants allowed to build churches in Hungary,	1784
Hungarian Revolution under Kossuth,	1848
Battle of Temeswar,	1849
Emperor of Austria crowned King of Hungary,	1867

SWITZERLAND (1481 to the Present Time).

In 1513 the admission of Appenzell completed the Thirteen Cantons that formed the Swiss Confederation. A war with the Emperor Maximilian had previously taken place, resulting in his defeat (1499).

Switzerland took a prominent share in the Reformation. At Einsiedlen, Ulrich Zwingli, excited, like Luther in Germany, by the sale of indulgences, preached against those who sold them, refusing the monk Samson admission into the Abbey Church.

At Zurich he made a yet bolder stand. There, in the Town Hall, he defended the doctrines of the Reformation against Faber with such effect that the Canton soon formally embraced Protestantism (1523). Bern, Basle, Schaffhausen followed, with parts of Glarus and Appenzell.

In 1529 Zwingle met Luther and Melanethon at Marburg; and they signed fourteen articles of faith, differing only about the Eucharist.

The interference of Zurich with the territory of the Abbot of St. Gall afforded the Roman Catholic Cantons an opportunity of declaring war against those which had embraced the Reformed doctrine. The Five Cantons by Lake Lucerne sent out eight thousand men, who met the Zurichers, under Zwingle, at the village of Cappel. Passing through a wood, the Catholics came upon the rear of their enemies; and in the struggle Zwingle fell mortally wounded. A soldier, when he refused to confess or pray to the Virgin, ran him through: and his body was afterwards burned and scattered to the wind (1531). The Synod of Bern afterwards published the Helvetic Confession of Faith.

As the residence of John Calvin, the Reformer, who was of French birth, Geneva became a centre of the Reformation. From it spread the Puritan feelings, which so strongly impressed the Church of Scotland, and caused secessions of the gravest kind from the Anglican Church. Calvin died in 1564.

In 1533 Geneva established its independence of Savoy; whose dukes, however, did not acknowledge this until 1603. The Peace of Westphalia acknowledged the independence of the entire Helvetic Republic.

In 1653, and again in 1712, the Protestant and Catholic Cantons engaged in war; but the *Treaty of Aarau* (1713) put an end to such destructive dissensions. Meanwhile Switzerland received an accession of great importance to her manufactures and industrial arts in the Huguenots, whom persecution had driven from France.

In 1793 the French armies overran Switzerland; but were expelled from the central cantons in the following year by Austria

and Russia. After the Peace of Luneville, First Consul Bonaparte proposed his *Act of Mediation* (1802), which constituted Switzerland a Confederation of nineteen cantons, under French protection. Valais, Geneva, and Neuchâtel were then annexed to France.

When Napoleon's star waned, Switzerland permitted the Allies to approach France through her territories; and, when the Congress of Vienna sat, the affairs of this mountain-land were placed upon the old footing, as they had been before Bonaparte's interference. The Confederation then contained twenty-two cantons.

The questions of "Universal Suffrage," and "Education Independent of Clergy," have caused much excitement during the present century.

Out of the latter arose a clamour from Aargau and other cantons for the expulsion from Switzerland of the Jesuits, who directed education in many places. In order to secure this object bodies of armed men, called *Free Corps*, invaded Lucerne, one of the Catholic Cantons; and this movement roused the Seven Catholic Cantons to form the *Sonderbund*, a league of defence. In Geneva a revolution took place, giving the power to the anti-Catholic party, by whose means the Diet decreed that the *Sonderbund* was illegal, and that the Jesuits should be expelled. Then began a war (1847). Two victories of the Federal troops—at Freyburg and Lucerne—obliged the Catholic Cantons to submit, whereupon the Jesuits were expelled from Switzerland.

In 1848 was formed a New Constitution, vesting the supreme power in a Federal Assembly of two Chambers, whose place of meeting was fixed at Bern.

MODERN SWISS CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.
Protestantism of Zwingli adopted at Zurich,	1523
Charles of Savoy tries in vain to take Geneva,	1602
Treaty of Westphalia declares Helvetia independent,	1648
Peace of Baden closes a civil war,	1648
Treaty of Aarau,	1712
French form Helvetic Republic,	1798
Act of Mediation,	1802
Congress of Vienna makes Switzerland independent,	1815
Sonderbund War,	1847

SOUTHERN COUNTRIES.

SPAIN (1492 to the Present Time).

The marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile has been already noticed. It laid a solid foundation for the monarchy of Spain.

When Isabella died in 1504, her successor in Castile was the Archduke Philip of Austria, who had married her daughter Joanna; but this prince died in 1506.

The most prominent and celebrated man in Spain at this time was Cardinal Ximenes, whom the Spaniards call Cisneros. By an austere life, and a princely expenditure of his revenues as Archbishop of Toledo, he acquired a great reputation, which his deeds as a statesman did not belie. On the death of Philip he became Regent of Castile, and contrived to repress a nobility noted for turbulence.

Charles I. (1516-1556).—When the son of Philip and Joanna, best known in history as the Emperor Charles V., became King of Spain by the death of Ferdinand, Ximenes assumed the reins of government until the King should arrive. He silenced the grumblers, who objected to his Regency, by showing them a train of cannon from his windows in Madrid. He also conquered Navarre: and such services Charles, who lingered long in Flanders, repaid by an ungrateful dismissal of this faithful minister, even when the old man was worn with mortal suffering (1517).

As the reign of Charles belongs rather to the Empire of Germany than to Spain, and has been already sketched under that head, we may pass on to that of his son.

Philip II. (1556-98).—This monarch began his reign when Spain stood prominent as one of the great powers of the earth—a land whose enterprise had added the New World, with all its untold treasures of gold and silver, to the old European kingdom. He ruled Spain, the Netherlands, the Sicilies, and Milan. Before

he ceased to reign, the splendour of his realm had been irrecoverably tarnished, and its strength fatally injured.

When Philip ceased, by the death of Mary his wife, to have any hold upon England, he devoted himself henceforth to Spain, leaving the Netherlands to rulers, of whose tender mercies we have already learned the extent.

His pitiless cruelty directed all the machinery of the Inquisition against those whom he called heretics: and the *auto-da-fe* blazed red in the land. One of the monuments of his reign is the palace of the *Escorial* near Madrid, built as a token of gratitude to St. Lawrence for the victory of St. Quentin (see page 158). In compliment to the saint the building took the form of a grid-iron. He thenceforth made Madrid the capital of Spain instead of Toledo. A war with the Moors, ending (1571) in the extirpation or banishment of most of those that survived, was one of his religious undertakings. He also succeeded in subduing Portugal (1580), which continued for sixty years to be a Spanish possession.

His career of ambition and conquest was checked in 1588 by the defeat of the Armada, "that great fleet invincible" which he sent to reduce England to submission. That he had some philosophic composure in his character may be judged
 1588 A.D. by his words on receiving the tidings of the blow: "I sent my fleet to fight with the English, but not with the elements."

A dark story belongs to the reign of Philip. By his first wife, Mary of Portugal, he had a son, Don Carlos, who displayed a rash and violent temper. This young man was suddenly arrested on a charge of aiming at the life of the King his father; and in a few months he died mysteriously in prison (1568)—poisoned, some say, by his father's command.

Philip died in 1598, aged seventy-two, after having seen all his schemes of aggrandizement end in utter failure.

Philip III. (1598–1621) was an indolent prince, who submitted to the rule of a favourite attendant, afterwards raised to be Duke of Lerma. During his reign a truce was concluded with the Dutch Republic (1609) which virtually acknowledged

the independence of the revolted provinces. But a more serious thing for Spain was the expulsion of the Moors (1610). Under charge of hypocrisy in their alleged conversion, and of intrigues with their friends in Africa for the reconquest of Spain, the province of Valencia was stripped of a population, who had brightened its gardens with delicious fruits and flowers, and had sent forth from their looms textures of the richest silk. It was like the old fashion of bleeding a sick man; professing to be a cure, it really exhausted the patient's strength, in many cases fatally.

Philip III. died of fever in 1621.

Philip IV. (1621-1665) was controlled in his government for a long time by a favourite called Gaspar Guzman, Count-Duke of Olivarez. This nobleman, whose great aim was to aggrandize the House of Austria, found himself matched with two ministers, Buckingham in England, and Richelieu in France, the devoted foe of the Hapsburgs. But the schemes of Olivarez came to nothing but despair. The rebellions in Catalonia and Portugal, the latter of which secured its independence under the Duke of Braganza (1640), cost him his post as minister; he was succeeded by Haro.

The Peace of Westphalia (1648) secured independence to the Dutch Republic by a last and formal recognition. Before this end was gained the ships of Holland had more than once proved a match for those of the country whence the invincible Armada had sailed.

The relations between Spain and England were interrupted in 1625, an account of the marriage between Prince Charles (Charles I.) and the Infanta having been broken off.

The episode of **Masaniello** belongs to the history of Italy, but may be related here; for Naples was then under Spanish dominion. The Spanish viceroy, Duke D'Arcos, having laid a tax on fruit and vegetables in Naples, the people, headed by a young fisherman, Tommaso Aniello (contracted into Masaniello), rose in revolt. The spark which kindled the flame was the flinging of a bunch of figs in the face of a magistrate. The revolt was successful. In his fisher-dress Aniello sat with a drawn sword dis-

pensing justice. His power over the mob was wonderful: the lifting of his finger was sufficient to rouse them to fury or reduce them to statue-like silence. But his mind gave way; his speeches began to provoke laughter; and, as he reposed in one of the convent cells after an exciting harangue, soldiers came in and shot him (1647).

Philip IV. made frantic efforts to recover Portugal; but in vain. Grief at his failures is said to have hastened his death (1665).

During his reign there was a protracted war with France, which produced no result to Spain but loss and disgrace. The struggle was closed by the *Treaty of the Pyrenees* (1659). As a seal of this compact the daughter of the Spanish King, Maria Theresa, was given in marriage to Louis XIV. of France. Upon this union hinged important results.

Charles II. (1665-1700) was involved in several wars with Louis XIV., whose over-reaching ambition troubled all his neighbours. For some years the Queen-mother acted as Regent, her opinions being controlled by a priest named Neidhard. This state of affairs resulted in misery to the country; and the feeling grew so strong that the favourite was banished.

All the treaties of this age saw Spain stripped of territory, France being an especial gainer by the *Treaties of Aix-la-Chapelle* and *Nimeguen*. The plan of Louis XIV., during all his reign, was to secure the succession of Spain to the Bourbons. He accordingly induced the Spanish King before his death to settle the crown upon Philip of Anjou. Before this, France, England, and Holland had signed a *Partition Treaty*, which proposed to give Spain, America, and the Netherlands to the Electoral Prince of Bavaria; Naples and Sicily to the Dauphin; and Milan to the Archduke Charles (1698). The death of the Electoral Prince left a Bourbon and but one Hapsburg to contest the crown.

Philip V. (1700-1746) was appointed King of Spain by the last will of Charles II., and was supported in his claim by all the power of his grandfather Louis XIV. of France.

From 1702 to 1713 the *War of the Spanish Succession* raged

in consequence of this claim. Spain was for the Bourbon; England declared against him. A part of the war affected the Spanish peninsula. At Vigo (1702) Sir George Rooke destroyed a Spanish fleet. In 1704 the same officer carried the Rock of Gibraltar by storm. But Mordaunt, Earl of Peterborough, was the most prominent actor on the Spanish stage of this struggle. He succeeded (1705) in storming the ramparts of Barcelona, long regarded as impregnable; and in the following year occupied Madrid as a centre of military operations. But then he was so disgusted with the slowness of the Archduke, that he resigned his command, leaving the English armies under the incompetent Lord Galway. The battle of Almanza, a town in Murcia, and the fall of Lerida before the victorious Berwick decided the issue of the war in Spain against the Hapsburg candidate. The pretensions of the Bourbon were ratified by the Treaty of Utrecht (1713).

When Philip's first wife died, he placed his confidence in a favourite of hers, who sent an Italian priest, Alberoni, to negotiate for Elizabeth Farnese, daughter of the Prince of Parma, as a second wife for the King. The first acts of Elizabeth, when the marriage was accomplished, was to dismiss this favourite, and to make Alberoni Prime Minister. Dissatisfied with the Treaty of Utrecht, this intriguing Italian set himself to kindle a war, which might overturn its arrangements and give back to Spain some of her lost territories. But these schemes alarmed Europe. The *Quadruple Alliance*, including England, France, Austria, and Holland, was formed against Spain; Sir George Byng defeated a Spanish fleet off Passaro; and the King, influenced by the Duke of Parma, consented to the dismissing of Alberoni, which saved Europe from war (1719).

In 1724 Philip resigned his crown to his son Louis; but, that prince having died of small-pox, he was forced from his seclusion in the convent of Ildefonso to take the helm of state again.

The twenty-two years of his second reign (1724-1746) were uneventful. He managed to secure possessions in Italy for his only son by Elizabeth Farnese,—Naples for Don Carlos, Parma and Piacenza for Philip. Philip V. died in 1746.

During the reign of **Ferdinand VI.** (1746-59) was concluded the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. His successor, **Charles III.** (1759-88), was forced by the treaty among the Bourbons, called the *Family Compact*, to begin a war with England. The great siege of Gibraltar belongs to his reign. It began in 1779. For three years the Spaniards rained cannon-balls upon the Rock; but all in vain, for within Eliott directed the defence, and from without aid came with the fleet of Lord Howe, which relieved the garrison (1782).

Charles IV. (1788-1808) warred at first with France; but he afterwards concluded a peace with that country, in conjunction with which he turned his arms against England. The naval victory of St. Vincent, in which Jervis commanded the English fleet, and Nelson distinguished himself greatly, was gained in 1797. In the same year the British took Trinidad, second in size of our West Indian possessions.

The Peace of Amiens confirmed this conquest; and for a time there was peace between Great Britain and Spain. But in 1804 some interference on the part of the former with Spanish treasure-ships kindled the flames again. The Spaniards and their French allies were totally defeated at sea off the sand-hill of Trafalgar (1805).

The counsels of Charles IV. were for some years directed by Godoy, who formed a league with France for the partition of Portugal. The scheme was, that a French army marching through Spain, and acting in conjunction with a Spanish force, was to seize the coveted country. Godoy was to be made Prince of Algarve for his services.

It happened that the Prince of Asturias, eldest son of Charles IV., being dissatisfied with Godoy's administration, addressed Napoleon by letter, requesting the French Emperor to afford some protection against the favourite's tyranny. Godoy, construing this into a plot against both the life and crown of Charles, caused the Prince to be arrested. But the people declared for Ferdinand; Napoleon took possession of some fortresses in Spain; and the Court were seriously contemplating a flight to Mexico.

when the soldiers revolted at Aranjuez: Godoy was sent to prison, and Charles abdicated in favour of his son (1808).

Ferdinand VII. (1808-33) found himself in trouble at once. His father, recalling his abdication, appealed to Napoleon as umpire; who nothing loath, for the situation favoured his own schemes regarding Spain, invited father and son to a conference at Bayonne. There Ferdinand was forced to restore the royal power, which Charles at once made over to Napoleon. They were both kept in honourable custody in France.

Then began the war of the *Spanish Patriots* (1808). Goaded to rage by the sight of Joseph Bonaparte seated on the throne of Spain, the people rose under Castanos, who soon obliged a large French army under Dupont to surrender at Baylen. The heroic defence of Saragossa, which was held against the French by Palafox for nine weeks, was a great achievement of the war. But Bonaparte's arrival on the scene turned the tide of events. The Spaniards were beaten at Tudela; and the conqueror entered Madrid. A second siege of Saragossa resulted in the sickness of Palafox and the downfall of the stronghold, of whose people 54,000 are said to have perished.

The events of the *Peninsular War*, already referred to in previous chapters, may now be briefly sketched. It arose from a desire on the part of Britain to afford succour to Portugal when threatened by Napoleon; and British aid was afterwards given to the cause of the Spanish patriots. It consisted of six campaigns (1808-13).

1808.—Landing at Mondego Bay in Portugal, Sir Arthur Wellesley with a British force defeated the French at Rolica and Vimiero. He was then displaced by Sir Hew Dalrymple, Governor of Gibraltar, who concluded the foolish *Convention of Cintra*, permitting the French to leave Portugal with their baggage (i.e., their plunder).

Sir John Moore then advanced into Spain from Coimbra; but the news of Napoleon's march with four armies to entrap and crush him, forced him to a retreat of misery and loss.

1809.—Chased by Soult, he stood at bay by Cerunna, forced to

fight by the non-arrival of the ships that were to carry his men to a place of safety. The British victory, won at Corunna, was saddened by the death of Moore (1809).

Wellesley, reinstated in his command, signalized a year thus nobly begun by seizing Oporto, driving Soult out of Portugal, and inflicting a terrible defeat upon Victor at Talavera.

1810.—In the spring of this year the French, having reduced the frontier-fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Almeida, invaded Portugal under the conduct of Massena. Wellington defeated them at Busaco, and then retired to the lines of Torres Vedras, behind which he spent the winter.

1811.—The retreat of the French from Portugal was counter-balanced by the loss of Badajos, which now surrendered to Soult. But three victories crowned the British arms—one won by Graham at Barrosa, and the others won by Wellington at Fuentes d'Onoro and Albuera. Two attempts of the English to retake Badajos failed.

1812.—The earnest desire of Wellington now realized itself. At the cost of much brave blood he made himself master of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos, and with these as a base of operations he invaded Spain. At Salamanca he defeated Marmont, and entering Madrid held it for a time.

1813.—When he gained the supreme command of the Spanish armies, Wellington made such a disposition of his troops as drove the French northward. He followed and defeated them at Vitoria, in the crowning and decisive battle of the war.

In 1814, having driven the French over the Pyrenees, the victor defeated them in the battles of Orthez and Toulouse. The latter was an unnecessary fight, for Napoleon had abdicated some days earlier. The conclusion of peace in 1814 restored Ferdinand VII. to his throne; but, claiming the power of a despot, he placed himself in opposition to the Cortes, which he ultimately dissolved, abolishing the liberty of the press, and re-establishing the Inquisition.

In 1820 a revolution broke out near Cadiz, directed by two Colonels—Quiroga and Riego. The *Free Constitution* of 1812

was revived, and sworn to by Ferdinand. But his heart was fixed on despotism, and he found a worthy assistant in Louis XVIII., who sent his nephew, the Duke of Angoulême, into Spain with a large army to overturn the Constitution and deliver Ferdinand from his bondage. The French troops occupied Madrid; and near Cadix, which they besieged, Ferdinand made an arrangement, by which he was permitted to return to the capital. Quintero fled to England, but Riego was executed.

Ferdinand VII. died in 1833.

Isabella II., who succeeded her father, is at present Queen of Spain.

Since the Salic Law, though not a part of the original constitution of Spain, had been introduced by the Bourbons and confirmed by the Cortes of 1812, a claimant for the throne, in opposition to Isabella, appeared in the person of Don Carlos, her uncle, who, as Ferdinand's brother, had always regarded himself the heir, until the edict annulling the Salic Law was published.

A war, lasting four years (1836-40), arose between the Carlist and Christian factions. The priests, the peasantry, and especially the Basque provinces, supported Carlos. The struggle was conducted with great ferocity. Cabrera, the most prominent of the Carlist generals, avenged the murder of his mother by causing the wives of thirty Christiano officers to be killed. Having taken Valencia, he filled it with slaughter. The scale of war was turned, when a British Legion under General Evans came to the aid of the young Queen. Don Carlos, hopeless of success, fled to France; and in 1843 Isabella, declared of age, assumed the sceptre for herself.

Spain has not been happy under her rule, as several revolutionary movements have testified.

MUNICH SPANISH CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.
Ferdinand of Aragon marries Isabella of Castile,	1469
Charles I. King, afterwards Emperor (Charles V.) of Germany, ...	1516
Spanish Armada defeated,	1588
Expulsion of the Moors (Philip III.),	1610

	A. D.
Portugal regains independence,	1640
Peace of the Pyrenees,	1659
War of the Spanish Succession,	1702-13
Capture of Gibraltar,	1704
Battle of Alinanza,	1707
Treaty of Utrecht,	1713
Great siege of Gibraltar,	1779-82
Battle of St. Vincent,	1797
Battle of Trafalgar,	1805
Joseph Bonaparte made King,	1808
Defence of Saragossa,	—
Peninsular War,	1808-13
Battle of Vitoria,	1813
Revelution of Riego,	1820
Carlist War,	1836-40

PORTUGAL (1498 to the Present Time).

Under Manuel the Great (1495-1521) maritime discovery went on so rapidly and successfully that Portugal rose to be one of the most considerable of European States. Vasco de Gama, rounding the Cape of Good Hope, made good his landing in India (1498). A lucky storm drove Cabral to the coast of Brazil; while Ceylon and Malabar were explored and colonized by other enterprising Portuguese sailors.

John III. (1521-57) was the next King of Portugal. During his reign the *Inquisition* was introduced, being intended at first to repress the Jews; but after they were driven from the land, the terrible engine was retained for other uses. This monarch also permitted the Jesuits to find a home in Portugal, and gave his grandson, Sebastian, into the care of these monks to be educated.

Sebastian III. (1557-78) grew up wholly under Jesuitical influences; a youth whose brain teemed with crusading fancies and ideas of chivalrous warfare. His great desire was to subdue Africa; and accordingly, in 1574, he undertook an expedition against the Moors, which resulted in nothing. However, a dispute regarding the succession to the crown of Morocco afforded him another opportunity. With a force of 15,000 men, he crossed the sea to Arsila (1578), and in a short time met the

Moors in battle at Alcazar, where he was defeated. Sebastian, his Moorish ally, and his Moorish foe, all perished, either in or after the battle. For many a day the Portuguese could not believe that their prince was gone. They fondly hoped that he was still lingering in captivity among the Moors; and several impostors, claiming his name, played upon this feeling.

After Cardinal Henry, an uncle of Sebastian, who had been appointed Regent during the absence of that monarch, had held power as Henry I. for two years (1578-80), Philip II. of Spain, who is thought to have encouraged the Moorish expedition in the hope of creating a vacancy in the Portuguese succession, seized Portugal, which he made a dependency of Spain (1580).

Then began a miserable period of sixty years' subjection, affording in its gloom and suffering a strong contrast to the golden age of Portugal under Manuel, only a century before. The Spanish yoke galled sorely; the country was unmercifully taxed; extortion and ill-treatment were the lot of the people. But this came to an end in 1640, when a re- 1640
volution set Portugal free, placing on the throne John A.D.
IV., Duke of Braganza.

John IV. (1640-1656) was not acknowledged King by the Pope. He waged war with Spain and Holland. The former was weary at the loss of Portugal; the latter found in Portugal too powerful a rival in her colonial seas. The Dutch secured a footing in Ceylon; but were in 1654 expelled from Brazil. From this reign dates an alliance which has long existed between Britain and Portugal, and which produced many important results; such, for example, as the Peninsular War.

Alphonso VI. (1656-67) was much controlled by the Jesuits. The war with Spain continued; but victory was declaring plainly for Portugal. In the second year of Peter's regency—he succeeded his deposed brother—Spain finally acknowledged Portuguese independence (1668).

Peter II. (Regency, 1667-83: Reign, 1683-1706) arranged a treaty with Holland, by which the conquests of the Dutch in the East Indies were secured to them. The discovery of rich

gold mines in Brazil created a considerable interest, not only in Portugal, but in other lands, anxious to participate in the profits of trade to this Eldorado. In 1703 Britain obtained the advantage of a treaty with Portugal; and this alliance caused the Portuguese to withdraw the aid and countenance they had been previously giving to Philip of Anjou in the Spanish Succession War.

The long reign of John V. (1706-50) was productive of few events of consequence. A colony—San Sacramento, on the Rio de la Plata—though assigned to Portugal by more than one treaty, especially the Peace of Utrecht, caused disputes with Spain. The building of the monastery at Mafra and the establishment of the Academy of History belong to this reign. John, whose devotion to the Pope and obedience to the clergy were rewarded with the title "*Rex Fidelissimus*," died in 1750.

Joseph I. (1750-77) sinks into insignificance in history beside his minister, Don Carvalho, afterwards Marquis of Pombal, to whom the revival of Portugal among the nations of Europe is justly ascribed. This statesman, who came to power owing to a fancy which the Queen of John V., an Austrian princess, took to his wife, improved manufacture, agriculture, and learning, and taught the Brazilians to cultivate coffee, sugar, cotton, rice, and indigo. He made many enemies among the nobles, whose rapacity he repressed with an unsparing hand; and in curbing the power of the Inquisition and banishing the Jesuits he displayed a pitiless resolution. His contest with this powerful order formed the central event of the reign. With unwearied industry they had been pushing their emissaries everywhere, aiming at the control of States and the direction of households. One of his strokes of policy was the removal of Jesuit confessors from the royal household; and when, in 1758, an attempt was made upon the King's life—a crime ascribed to the jealous rage of the order—he put to death some of the leading nobility and priests, winding up his work by the expulsion of the Order of Loyola from Portugal (1759). This embroiled the King in disputes with the Pope.

The great earthquake of Lisbon, killing 60,000 persons and laying the city in ruins, occurred in 1755. The taste of Pombal directed the rebuilding of the city.

Maria Francisca Isabel (1777-89), daughter of Joseph I., deposed Pombal,—an event which gladdened the nobles and clergy, for it removed the wholesome curb which had checked their ill deeds. The gloom of affairs was deepened by the insanity of the Queen, in whose room the Prince of Brazil, her eldest son, was nominated Regent (1789).

The secret compact for the partition of Portugal, entered into between France and Spain, has been already referred to in sketching the Peninsular War. In 1807, Marshal Junot, the general of Napoleon, who had declared that the reign of the House of Braganza had come to an end, because Portugal would not confiscate the British goods in the country, crossed the frontier. The royal family of Portugal sailed away to Brazil, where they fixed their Court at Rio Janeiro, leaving Lisbon to the French. What befel the French in the ensuing five years has been already related.

Upon the death of Maria in 1816, her son, who had been Regent with full powers since 1799, became King, with the title of John VI.; but he continued to reside in Brazil.

In 1820 the fire of revolution, kindled in Spain, inflamed Portugal also. Beginning at Oporto, the movement spread, without bloodshed, however, or riot, until a Provisional Government was established, and the Cortes of 1821, under the Archbishop of Braga, proclaimed the liberty of the press and the sovereignty of the people. This recalled John from Brazil, where he had been for nearly fourteen years. Not until he promised that he would observe the new constitution was he allowed to land.

There was, however, an attempt on the part of Don Miguel, the King's second son, to restore despotism. John, who was not permitted to see any of the foreign ambassadors, was obliged to seek refuge on board of an English ship then lying in the Tagus. He then deprived Don Miguel of his command, and "gave him leave to travel."

John VI. died in 1826. He had in the previous year acknowledged his eldest son, Don Pedro, as Emperor of Brazil; and that monarch, preferring a transatlantic throne, nominated his daughter, **Dona Maria da Gloria** (1826-53), sovereign of Portugal. This princess, now only nine years old, was sent over to Europe; but owing to the intrigues of Don Miguel, her uncle, who assumed the title of King, she was carried to England as a place of safety (1828).

Don Pedro then took up arms in the cause of his daughter,—an enterprise in which England afforded him cordial assistance. Sailing from the Azores (1832), his troops seized Oporto, where the Miguelites besieged him in vain. Lisbon soon afterwards yielded, and then the young Queen came from England to resume her throne. The subjugation of Don Miguel, achieved by the reduction of Santarem, resulted in the Convention of Evora, which expelled the usurper (1834). In the same year Dona Maria, declared of age, assumed her full royalty.

On her death in 1853, **Pedro V.**, her son, became King. His promise of usefulness being cut short by a premature death in 1861, his brother, **Louis I.**, ascended the throne.

PORTUGUESE CHRONOLOGY.

	A.D.
Voyage of Vasco de Gama,	1497
The Brazils discovered by Cabral, ..	1500
Battle of Alcazar,	1578
Portugal a province of Spain,	1580-1640
John of Braganza made King,	1640
Dutch expelled from Brazil,	1654
Independence acknowledged by Spain, ...	1668
Earthquake at Lisbon,	1755
Jesuits expelled from Portugal,	1759
Portuguese Court emigrate to Brazil, ...	1807
Vimiero—Convention of Cintra,	1808
Landing of Wellealey,	1809
Battle of Busaco,	1810
Revolution at Oporto,	1820
Return of the Court,	1821
Brazil declared independent,	1825
Contest between Miguel and Maria	1828-34

ITALY (1500 to the Present Time).

The history of Modern Italy is a most complicated narrative. In order to preserve as much clearness as possible in the following sketches, the history of Northern Italy—including Milan, Genoa, Sardinia, Venice, and Tuscany—is taken first. Then follow the Papal Territories, and the Two Sicilies or the Kingdom of Naples.

MILAN.

We left the French masters of Milan after the death of Ludovico Sforza. The defeat of Francis I. of France, at Pavia, left the Duchy in the power of the Emperor Charles V., under whom Francis Sforza held it.

Andrea Doria, who may be called the Admiral of Charles V., for he commanded the fleets of that monarch against the Turks and the pirates of the Barbary shore, distinguished himself by his patriotic deliverance of his native Genoa from the French who had seized it. Appearing with his ships before the city, he expelled the intruders (1528), and, under the protection of the Emperor, erected Genoa into an independent aristocratic republic, of which he became one of the Censors. The plot of Fieschi (1547) troubled his old age, which he devoted to Genoa; he died in 1560, aged ninety-four.

Before that time Milan had passed into the possession of Philip II. of Spain, under the dominion of which government it continued until 1700.

The Farnese family—a noble Roman race—had now become prominent in Italy, owing to the election of Cardinal Alexander Farnese to the Papal chair, under the title of Paul III. (1534). This Pope conferred Parma and Piacenza, over which Milan exercised a claim, upon his natural son, Peter; but that dissolute man was murdered by conspirators two years later (1547). His grandson, Alexander Farnese, revived the fame of the family by his military genius, which he displayed in the Spanish Nether-

lands fighting for Spain against the Prince of Orange. We recognize in him the Duke of Parma, who was prepared to take a share in the triumph of the Spanish Armada, by launching an army into England across the Strait of Dover.

In 1713 the Treaty of Utrecht made over Milan and Mantua to Austria, which afterwards acquired Parma and Piacenza. This caused a revival of enterprise in Lombardy, which had declined under the Spanish rule. It was, however, in the reign of Maria Theresa that the progress was most marked. Until the shock of the Napoleonic wars, Austria continued to rule the thriving province; but the ambitious Corsican grasped it, with Venetia, and made a so-called Kingdom of Italy by uniting them. But 1814 saw Austria again mistress of Milan, Mantua, and Venice.

In 1848 the people of Lombardy, aided by their Sardinian neighbours, rose in revolt against the rule of Austria. A few cigars kindled the rising; for the Milanese, being resolved not to use tobacco in order to injure the Austrian revenue, felt themselves insulted when the soldiers of the Austrian garrison smoked them in the streets. The war was at first favourable to the cause of Lombardy, which was ultimately annexed to Sardinia, then under Charles Albert. But the vigour of Radetzky, and especially the battle of Custoza, between the Mincio and the Adige, turned the scale so completely that a Sardinian force was obliged to capitulate at Milan.

In 1859 hostilities broke out once more between Austria and Sardinia. When the troops of the Emperor, by crossing the Ticino, committed an overt act of war against Sardinia, the Emperor of the French, Napoleon III., came to the aid of the invaded state. Landing at Genoa, he repulsed the Austrians at Montebello, Palestro, Magenta, and Solferino, and by the Peace of Villafranca forced Austria to cede Lombardy to him. He forthwith made it over to Sardinia, receiving as the guerdon of his aid the territories of Nice and Savoy, lying close to the French frontier.

Genoa gradually declined, like Venice, after the voyage of

Vasco da Gama had opened a channel for the trade of the Indies, which did not draw wealth to Mediterranean ports. Her constant struggles with the Turks had early stripped her of all her possessions on the Levant and the Black Sea. In 1769 she made over to France Corsica, the last fragment of the external dominion her galleys had won in the Middle Ages. A French garrison within the city under Massena stood a terrible siege in 1799 by a combined army of Austrians and English; and when it afterwards fell into the hands of Bonaparte, he annexed the state to France. It was however united to Sardinia by the Congress of Vienna (1815).

Savoy and Sardinia.—The Kingdom of Sardinia grew out of the Duchy of Savoy. The transition took place in 1720, when Victor-Amadeus II. wore the ducal coronet (1675–1730). This most distinguished ruler took an active share in the wars of the Louis XIV. period, siding, whenever he could follow his own inclinations, with the Allies, who withstood the ambitious encroachments of the French. The Treaty of Utrecht gave him Sicily, and he afterwards acquired the island of Sardinia with the title of King.

The successor of Victor-Amadeus, Charles Emanuel III., in conjunction with the French, tried to wrest the Duchy of Milan from Austria; but in spite of his victory at Guastalla he did not succeed in doing so. This monarch, taking part with Maria Theresa in her distress, fought bravely against the French and Spaniards. At the Col de l'Assiette the Piedmontese defended their intrenched camp with such telling effect that the French did not invade their valleys for many a year again (1747).

The storm of the French Revolution affected Sardinia, which fell into the hands of the French, Savoy becoming the department of Mont-Blanc for a time. In 1799 the King (Charles Emanuel IV.) was obliged to take refuge in the island of Sardinia; but the Court returned to Turin in 1814.

In 1821 Charles Albert of Carignano was made Regent by a revolution; but the King, Charles Felix, secured the ascendancy owing to aid from Austria. After wandering and fighting in

Spain and elsewhere, **Charles Albert** became King (1831-49). He raised the Italian banner against the Austrians in 1848; and, as we have seen, at first with some success. But the surrender of Milan was a serious blow. And yet more decisive was the battle of Novara (1849), which in the following year caused the King to abdicate in favour of his son, Victor Emanuel, the present King of Italy.

Under this dashing soldier Sardinia became the ally of France and England during the Crimean War, in which her soldiers fought with much courage and success, especially at the Tchernaya.

Then came eventful days, which changed the little Kingdom of Sardinia into the Kingdom of Italy.

Joseph Garibaldi, "the hero of the red shirt," issuing from the rocky islet of Caprera, where he had spent some time in retirement, landed in May 1860 at Marsala in Sicily, proclaiming himself Dictator for Victor Emanuel. Storming Palermo, the capital of Sicily, and defeating the troops of the King of Naples at Melazzo, he then invaded the mainland, forcing Reggio to capitulate. The King of Naples took refuge in the maritime fortress of Gaeta, while Garibaldi entered the capital, and nominated a provisional government.

The troops of Sardinia soon invaded the Papal States, whose armies they defeated, and whose seaport of Ancona they forced to capitulate. Other victories followed. Victor Emanuel entered Naples, and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies became a dependency of Sardinia, or rather a part of the newly organized Kingdom of Italy. By vote or revolution all the other States, except the Papal territories and the Austrian province of Venetia, were amalgamated into an Italian Kingdom, whose first capital was Turin, where the first Parliament met in 1861. But Florence has since been chosen as a fitter capital of Italy. The evacuation of Venetia by Austria, and the withdrawal of French troops from Rome are noteworthy points in the recent history of Italy.

Venice.—During the decline of Venetian commerce and power, consequent upon the discovery of the sea-route to India and the East, that state was engaged in a great struggle with the Turks.

Indeed Europe, at a critical period of her history, owed much to the ships of Venice even during the time of that romantic republic's decay. During the sixteenth century the Ottomans took possession of the Morea and Cyprus, although their navy sustained an almost fatal blow in 1571, when Don John of Austria defeated them at Lepanto.

During the century that followed the Peace of Westphalia (1648-1740) Venice engaged in three distinct wars with Turkey. The first war (1645-69) resulted in the conquest of Candia by the Ottomans: the second (1683-99) closed with the Peace of Carlowitz, and left Venice again mistress of the Morea: the third (1715-18) cost her that peninsula, which the Treaty of Passarowitz obliged her to give up in return for some border-towns in Dalmatia. The close of the eighteenth century saw Venice in the iron grasp of that Corsican despot, who made wild havoc among the ancient States of Europe. After the brilliant campaign of Rivoli and Mantua (1797), Napoleon, who had penetrated to within eight days' march of Vienna, turned and threw himself upon Venice, whose forces had been threatening his rear. Dire was the revenge he wreaked, carrying off the bronze horses of San Marco, and reducing the golden-decked Bucentaur to the condition of a bare dismantled hull; in a word, humbling Venice to the very dust. Nor was this all. The Treaty of Campo Formio (1797) decreed that the ancient Venetian territory should be partitioned. Austria got the districts lying within the sweep of the Adige, including the capital. The western portions were added to the Cisalpine Republic, which was formed chiefly of the Milanese and Mantuan possessions. And to France went the ship—glory of the ancient sea-port—the Ionian Islands, and certain parts of Albania. How Napoleon, in his frenzy of ambition, cut and carved upon the political geography of Italy may be judged from the facts that the Cisalpine Republic was changed in 1802 into the Italian Republic, which in 1805 became a Kingdom of Italy. The Genoese territories, previously called the Ligurian Republic, were made then a part of France.

But the Congress of Vienna undid all this arrangement, which

lost its cohesion when the strong grasp of Bonaparte grew weak. Venice, in combination with the Valteline, Mantua, and Milan, was erected into the Kingdom of Lombardy and Venice under the sway of Austria.

It has been already seen that Austria lost Lombardy in 1859, and in 1867 she evacuated Venetia, which now forms a part of the Kingdom of Italy.

TUSCANY.

We have already glanced at the period of Florentine brilliance under the Medici. It was interrupted by a time of anarchy at the beginning of the sixteenth century, when Machiavelli—whose name has become a by-word for stealthy and far-reaching intrigue—pulled the threads of Florentine politics, and visited the Courts of France and Germany as envoy and diplomatist.

The Florentine Republic merged in the Grand-Duchy of Tuscany in 1537, when Cosmo I. was elected to the chief station. He was descended from a branch of the great house of Medici. It was owing in a great measure to the powerful protection of Charles V., Emperor of Germany, that this prince owed his influence and position. He drew the chains of despotism tight round Florence, the poison-cup and the stiletto being often the ministers of his arbitrary vengeance. But of administrative power and application he had a considerable share. When to the territories of Florence and Pisa, the latter of which had been conquered, he added Siena, which was given him as a fief by Philip II. of Spain, the dominions of the Tuscan Grand-Duchy were complete.

We find the tragic story of two of Cosmo's sons adapted dramatically by Alfieri. The current rumour was that John the Cardinal had been slain by his brother Garcia, whom Cosmo the father then struck dead in the fury of his wrath: the mother of the young men died a short time afterwards. The suspicious proximity of the deaths may have given rise to the story. Cosmo's policy with regard to Tuscany was very successful in preventing that State from becoming a prey to the foreign domination and

intestine troubles which have been in modern times the bane of Italy. He refused at first to accept Siena as a fief from Philip II., on the plea that he was an independent Sovereign, and would be vassal to no man: and he refused also to become master of Corsica, offered to him by the insurgents of 1564, because he foresaw that the rocky island would be a perilous and turbulent possession.

Passing by Francis I. (1575-87), who was rather an East Indian merchant than a Sovereign; and Ferdinand I. (1587-1608), who also made money by merchandise and improved Leghorn vastly, we reach the reign of Cosmo II. (1608-1621), during which Florence derived lustre from the astronomical discoveries of Galileo, whose surname was Galilei. This distinguished native of Pisa incurred the anger of the Jesuits by joining in the political movement which caused their expulsion from Padua. They accordingly set the terrible machinery of the Inquisition in force against him, and after some preliminary attacks, the discoverer was summoned to Rome, where, an old man of seventy, he appeared before the assembled priests at the Convent of Minerva. There, for declaring that the sun is the centre of its system, and that the Earth moves, not only round this central sun, but also with a diurnal motion on its own axis, he was committed to prison, and obliged to recite at intervals the seven penitential psalms. As he rose from his knees, after having signed an abjuration of his errors—a step which alone could have saved him from worse penalties—he is said to have whispered in a friendly ear, "*E pur si muove*" (It moves, nevertheless). Galileo died in 1642, aged seventy-six.

After a period of about a century, during which the degenerate Medici were swayed by monks and Jesuits, and the decline of Tuscany was continuous, the State received a new lease of existence by being transferred, after the death in 1737 of John Gast, last of the Medici, to Francis Stephen, Duke of Lorraine.

This prince is well known in history as the husband of the celebrated Maria Theresa. But the State of Tuscany, after he became Emperor (1745), found the disadvantage of being ruled

by a Sovereign whose thoughts were absorbed by the gigantic interests of an Empire. It was therefore arranged that when he died, his eldest son should receive the Empire, while his second inherited the Grand-Duchy of Tuscany.

This son was **Leopold I.** (1765-90), to whom Tuscany owes a debt of deep gratitude. While he improved the laws, abolished monopolies, and drained marshes, he devoted himself to a task more difficult than any of these—the purification of the monasteries, and the restraint of the power of the Pope within Tuscany. His chief coadjutor in this work, which of course drew thunderbolts of angry flame from the Vatican, was **Ricci**, Bishop of Pistoia, who certainly deserves an honourable name among Italian reformers.

When Leopold, as had happened with his father, was called to the imperial throne (1790), his second son, **Ferdinand III.**, succeeded him in Tuscany. While he ruled, following the wise footsteps of his father, the hand of Bonaparte was laid on Italy; and the Grand Duke, finding French troops filling his dominions, was forced to retire to Germany. During the fifteen years of Napoleon's ascendancy (1799-1814) Tuscany underwent more than one change. In 1801 the conqueror erected it into the *Kingdom of Etruria*, over which he placed Charles Louis, hereditary Prince of Parma. In 1808 he united it to the French Empire in three departments—*Arno*, *Ombrone*, and *Mediterranée*. And finally, in 1809, he restored it to the form of a Grand-Duchy under the sway of his sister Eliza. This work was of course all undone by the Congress of Vienna, by which Ferdinand III. was recalled to his Grand-Duchy. By a further arrangement of the Congress, Maria Louisa of Spain, who had been ruling Etruria as Regent for her infant son, received the little Duchy of Lucca, which in 1847 reverted to Tuscany.

During the long peace that succeeded Waterloo, Tuscany under her Grand-Dukes enjoyed a progressive prosperity, that made it one of the happiest States in Italy. This was rudely shaken in 1848—the year of revolutionary earthquakes—when the Grand-Duke was expelled and a Florentine Republic formed. But the

Austrian soldiers stepped in to restore the former state of things; which, however, did not last long. For, in the year succeeding the campaign of Magenta and Solferino, another revolution expelled the Grand Duke, and made Tuscany a part of the newly-established Kingdom of Italy. By a recent arrangement Florence, both as being more central than Turin and richer in historical memories, has been selected as the new capital of Italy.

There are three names, which float conspicuously upon the surface of Italian history during the present generation, and of which a few words must therefore be said. These are Cavour, Garibaldi, and Mazzini.

Count Cavour, born in 1810 at Turin, was educated for a soldier, but settled down to a farmer's life afterwards. He felt a great admiration for the English Constitution; and, both by his work as a journalist and by his speeches in the Chamber of Deputies, he advised a close alliance with England in opposition to the Democratic party. He was Prime Minister of Sardinia from 1852 to 1859, but resigned his office after the Peace of Villafranca. Made Premier again in 1860, he was cut off prematurely by death in 1861, just after Italy had been made a kingdom.

Joseph Garibaldi, born at Nice in 1807, has had a most eventful and wandering life. After making some voyages as a sailor, he engaged in plots with Mazzini against Charles Albert of Sardinia. Escaping from the perilous consequences of these, he carried his sword to South America, where he fought against Brazil on behalf of Rio Grande. On his return to Europe he sided in defending Rome against the French (1848). Another turn of Fortune's wheel—and he appears as a soap-boiler and candle-maker in America; then is transformed to a farmer in the rocky islet of Caprera.

In the campaign of Magenta he headed a band of volunteers called the Alpine Hunters. His campaign of 1860 has been described: that over, and Italy a kingdom, he retired to Caprera.

But in 1862, haunted by a desire to plant the flag of Italy on the Castle of St. Angelo at Rome, because the intervention of the Papal territories cut the new Italian kingdom in two, Garibaldi

excited a rising in Sicily, and crossing into Calabria, came into hostile collision with the royal troops at Aspromonte, where a bullet wounded him in the ankle.

The tedious suffering consequent on this injury combined with other causes to keep him quiet for a time; but in 1867 an insurrectionary movement in the Papal States, from which the French garrison had been recently withdrawn, excited him to action, and he now lies in prison for appearing in arms against the royal Italian troops.

Mazzini, born at Genoa in 1809, was actively engaged as a journalist in Italy, until his arrest on a false charge of being a *Carbonaro*—that is, a member of a certain secret society—drove him into exile, which he spent in France, Switzerland, and London, always writing and intriguing and hoping for a Republic in Italy. In 1849 he went to Rome, where as one of the *Triumvirs* he defended the city against Oudinot, whose success drove him again into exile.

PAPAL STATES.

The document, upon which rested the first establishment of the temporal power of the Popes, as sovereigns independent of the Emperors of Germany, consisted of letters patent issued in 1278 by Rudolf of Hapsburg to Pope Nicholas III. (Cardinal Orsini). These defined the Papal territories as extending from Radicofani to Ceprano, and from the Mediterranean to the Adriatic, including the Duchy of Spoleto, the March of Ancona, and the Romagna. But the last named was not annexed until the days of the warlike Julius II (1513).

Leo X. (1513–21) was a polished and learned member of the great family Medici. His pontificate of eight years was noted for the beginning of the Reformation under Luther, already described in the history of Germany. But his age was memorable for the literary and artistic brilliance that shone in both Rome and Florence. These were the days of Michael Angelo and Raffaele—of Ariosto and Machiavelli.

Under Pope Clement VII., who was the ally of Francis I. of

Prison, Rome was sacked by the troops of the Constable Bourbon (1527), who was shot in scaling the wall.

Paul III. has been already named as one of the Farnese family. He assembled the last of the General Councils at Trent in 1546, and he was dead long before it closed its sittings in 1563. The order of Jesuits, a most active and enterprising brotherhood, was founded during this pontificate. The founder was Ignatius Loyola, a native of Spanish Biscay, who, lying on a bed of pain—his legs having been injured by a cannon-shot at the defence of Pamplona against the French—conceived the idea of establishing a fraternity of monks. At Montserrat in 1522 he hung his sword on the altar, and kept vigil, previous to entering on a life of spiritual warfare; and in 1534, with Peter Faber and Francis Xavier, he took the oaths in the chapel of Montmartre. In 1540 and 1543 the Pope gladly caught at a novelty, which would infuse new vigour and enthusiasm into a system already much weakened by the assaults of the Protestant Reformers; and by bulls the Order of the Jesuits received a formal sanction from St. Peter's chair. Ere long the members of the order were pushing themselves and the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church even into such remote regions of the world as Japan and Paraguay.

Gregory XIII. (1572–85), influenced by the Cardinal of Lorraine, held public rejoicings at Rome for the massacre of St. Bartholomew. He enjoys in history a more attractive renown as the reformer of the calendar, which by following the Julian calculation was much astray. By appointing every fourth year a leap-year, which is to be omitted once in the century, he reduced the error of time to the smallest possible amount. This—called the New Style—has been adopted in all the countries of Europe except Russia.

The territory of Rome was increased by the additions of Ferrara, annexed in 1597; Urbino, purchased by Urban VIII. in 1631; and Castro, added in 1650.

There arose in France a religious sect called Jansenists, from the name of their founder Jansen, once a Professor of Divinity at

Louvain. This body set themselves in opposition to the Jesuits, and were condemned by the Popes of the latter half of the seventeenth and the beginning of the eighteenth centuries. But it was Clement XI. (1700-21) who hurled a fatal thunderbolt, called the Bull *Unigenitus* (1713), which condemned certain propositions of a book written by a Jansenist, Quesnel. The followers of Jansen, a small community at Port Royal, were ultimately crushed by the weight of an opposition which numbered the eloquent Bossuet in its ranks; but they had many sympathizers in the Parliament of Paris.

By Clement XIV., whose pontificate lasted only five years (1769-74), a bull was issued for the abolition of the Order of the Jesuits (1773). The Pontiff died in the following year, but the suspicions of poison, excited by his sudden death, were not confirmed.

Pius VI. (1774-99) witnessed the bursting of the storms which shook Europe, and Italy not least, in the days of the French Revolution and the campaigns of Bonaparte. The antagonism between this Pontiff and the Tuscan Ricci, who held Jansenist opinions, has been already noticed. Among other works of peace, Pius VI. drained a large portion of the Pontine marshes.

So keenly did this Pope feel the evil deeds of the Revolutionists in France that he issued a Bull of Excommunication. When Napoleon invaded Italy, he took possession of four districts, known as the *Legations*, namely, Bologna, Ferrara, Ravenna, and Forli, which he annexed to the Cisalpine Republic. But worse was yet to come. In 1797 a number of Roman republicans, among whom was Duphot, a French officer, when hot with wine after dinner, went through the streets with the *tricolor* flag. When the Papal soldiers came to disperse the crowd, they fled into the house of the French ambassador, and Duphot was shot. A French army under Berthier then entered Rome and expelled Pius VI. from the Vatican (1798). The Pontiff, now eighty years of age, would not abdicate his temporal sovereignty. Brought to France, he died at Valence in 1799.

Pius VII. (1800-21) at first found Napoleon easy and pleasant

to deal with; and a *Concordat*, or religious treaty, was signed between France and Rome in 1801. Three years later, Bonaparte used his power over the Pope to secure the presence of the Pontiff at Paris, when Pius crowned him in the Cathedral of Notre-Dame. But in the following year the Pope refused to perform the same ceremony at Milan.

Then began various troubles between the Emperor of France and the Pope. French soldiers took Ancona and Civita Vecchia. Peremptory orders came from France, demanding that the subjects of all countries at war with Napoleon should be expelled from Rome. And in 1808 matters came to a crisis by the seizure of Ancona, Urbino, and other provinces, which were joined to the Napoleonic Kingdom of Italy.

In 1809 Napoleon issued a decree annexing the Roman States to France; and the Pope, who published vain bulls of excommunication, was obliged to take his Breviary, ascend his carriage, and leave Rome. He was detained at Grenoble, Savona, and afterwards at Fontainebleau. In the last place Napoleon visited him to extort a new Concordat (1813), and in their talking often forgot himself so far as to speak roughly and sternly to the representative of St. Peter. In 1814 the Pope was reinstated by the Allies, his territories being restored. He took an early opportunity to restore the Order of the Jesuits.

In 1846 Pio Nono (Pius IX.) was elected Pope. He showed a great desire to be liberal, and reformed the State exceedingly; but the revolutionary mania of 1848 inflamed the Roman populace with a desire for a republican form of government. His minister Count Rossi was murdered at the door of the Chamber of Deputies; and he remained a prisoner, until he managed to escape from the Quirinal in the disguise of a footman, and repaired to Gaeta, where he lived under the protection of Naples.

In 1849 Marshal Oudinot with a French army, aided by the King of Naples, assailed Rome, which fell before the besiegers (July 3), and was garrisoned by French troops. The Pope returned to the Vatican in 1850.

As already indicated, the French garrison has been recently

withdrawn from Rome; an insurrectionary movement is afoot; and it is not improbable that the coming generation may see an end of the Pope's temporal sovereignty.

KINGDOM OF NAPLES, OR THE TWO SICILIES.

(1700 to the Present Time.)

The War of the Spanish Succession, ending with the Peace of Utrecht, caused Naples to pass into the hands of Austria, and Sicily into the power of Savoy. In 1720 Austria negotiated an exchange of Sardinia for Sicily, and thus became possessor of both Naples and Sicily.

But in 1735 Don Carlos, son of Philip V. of Spain, wrested Naples from the Austrians, and was formally appointed King of the Two Sicilies, on condition that that realm should not again be united to the monarchy of Spain. Thus began the line of Bourbon monarchs in Southern Italy.

During the Napoleonic wars Ferdinand IV., son of Carlo Borbone, as Don Carlos was called, was twice forced by a French army to take refuge in Sicily. After the second of these occasions Joseph Bonaparte was raised by his brother to the throne of Naples; but, when he was called to a higher throne in Spain, his place was supplied by Joachim Murat, "*le beau sabreur*," who assumed the dignity in 1808. This dashing soldier accompanied his imperial brother-in-law into Russia, where he commanded the cavalry; but a quarrel between the Emperor and the King embittered the disasters of the retreat. Murat joined Napoleon in his final struggle at Leipsic, but then deserted to the Allies. However, alarmed by the delay which the Congress of Vienna seemed to use with regard to Naples, this impetuous monarch took arms again for Napoleon. An Austrian army defeated him near Tolentino (1815); and in the following year, after the return of Ferdinand to the throne of Naples, a wild descent from Corsica upon the Calabrian shore ended in the ruin of Murat's hopes and the extinction of his life. Arrested at Pizzo, he was condemned and shot by his Neapolitan captors.

A decree of 1816 declared Ferdinand IV. King of the United

Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. A secret society, called *Carbonari*, had for some time been striking its roots deep and wide through Naples. One source of dissatisfaction was an exorbitant land-tax. The smouldering fire burst into a mutiny of cavalry, which grew into a revolution of the *Carbonari* (1820). They demanded a constitution like the Cortes of Spain, which was established: and a rising at Palermo—the Sicilians demanded a separate parliament—was quelled. But after a conference at Laybach, to which Ferdinand was summoned, an Austrian army entered Naples and restored the old despotism. Ferdinand IV. of Naples, and I. of the Two Sicilies, died in 1825.

Ferdinand II., nicknamed *King Bomba* from his tendency to resort to the convincing arguments of artillery in dealing with an obstinate city, became King in 1830. The Sicilians still cried for a repeal of the union; but their desires took the shape of panic in 1837, when an alarming outbreak of cholera desolated the island. Crying out that the wells were poisoned by the Neapolitan government, the ignorant and frenzied mobs rose and plundered the palaces, flinging physicians and their families into the sea. Suppressed by military force, and the execution of the ringleaders, the revolt ended with the complete abolition of Sicilian independence, the island being declared merely a province of Naples.

In 1848 revolutions broke out in both Naples and Sicily. Messina and Palermo were the centres of revolt in the island, where a parliament, voting the deposition of the Bourbons, prepared to establish a monarchy. But at Naples the King had let loose the *lazzaroni* upon the revolutionists and had secured quiet. He was therefore free to think of Sicily; and accordingly Filangieri entered the island, which he subdued city after city, until Palermo fell, and despotic rule, accompanied by relentless cruelty, was restored.

The tyranny of Bomba after this excited indignation in every part of Europe, where freedom was cherished. But he held to his doctrine that "liberty was fatal to the Bourbons," and set before him the Hapsburgs as a model to be imitated.

How Garibaldi, in the campaign of 1860, drove the Bourbons from Naples, has been told already. The fortress of Gaeta, where King Ferdinand and his wife held out for five months (Sept. 1860 to Feb. 1861), was their last stronghold of defence.

Naples and Sicily were then added to the new Kingdom of Italy.

MODERN ITALIAN CHRONOLOGY.

	A.D.
Naples and Sicily provinces of Spain,	1504-1700
Sack of Rome by Constable Bourbon,	1527
Doria makes Genoa independent,	1528
Jesuits acknowledged by the Pope,	1543
Cosmo I. made Grand Duke of Tuscany,	1560
Pope Gregory XIII. corrects the Calendar,	1582
Revolt of Masaniello at Naples,	1647
Kingdom of Sardinia founded,	1720
Milan vested in the House of Austria,	1748
Sicilies given up by Spain,	1750
Italian Republic under Bonaparte as President,	1802
Bonaparte crowned King of Italy,	1805
Joseph Bonaparte King of Naples,	1806
Murat King of Naples,	1808
Papal Territories annexed to France,	1809
French evacuate Italy,	1814
Murat shot,	1815
Austrians restore despotism in Naples,	1821
Siege of Rome by Oudinot,	1849
Campaign of Magenta,	1859
Garibaldi lands at Palermo,	1860
New Kingdom of Italy formed,	1861

TURKEY (1453 to the Present Time).

Mohammed II. (1451-81), the conqueror of Constantinople and the founder of the Turkish dominion in Europe, was a wise and active prince. His military activity was incessant. He reduced Servia and Trebizond, became master for a time of the Peloponnesus, and alarmed the potentates of Central Europe by his assaults upon the countries lying round the Danube, but especially by his conquest of Otranto in Italy, achieved by Ahmed Keduk in 1479. He ruled with stern cruelty at home, but established many seats of learning.

After the reign of Bajazet II., who was troubled with civil wars, led by his brother and his son, and who lost Otranto, Selim I. (1512-20) became Sultan. After clearing away by execution a number of the near relatives, who might contest the throne, he commenced a career of Asiatic and African conquest, which added to his dominions portions of Persia and Armenia, along with Syria and Egypt. Having overthrown the last Caliph of Cairo (1517), he returned in triumph to Constantinople with 1000 camels laden with Egyptian treasures. A noteworthy fact is his formation of a Turkish navy, which for many generations contested the dominion of the Levant and the Ionian Sea with the galleys of Venice. An overdose of opium caused Selim's death.

Then began the reign of **Solyman the Great** (1520-66), who was undoubtedly the most celebrated of the Ottoman monarchs. When scarcely seated on the throne, he reduced the great Danubian fortress of Belgrade, and the island of Rhodes, in defence of which the Knights of St. John fought with a valour all in vain (1521). His next exploit was the subjugation of Hungary, where, in the battle of *Mohacz*, Louis, King of the country, was slain (1526). The conqueror strode on to Vienna, his brain burning no doubt with visions of a European sovereignty; but the Western Powers put forth their strength to stay his career, and he besieged the Austrian capital in vain for four seasons (1529-33).

A successful struggle with the Shah of Persia, and a second war in Hungary (1541), excited by Ferdinand's seizure of the Hungarian crown on the death of Zapoyla, the vassal of Solyman, filled the central years of the reign. The latter contest ended in victory for the Sultan, to whom the Austrian ceded the Hungarian territory round Buda, and promised to pay tribute for the rest.

During this reign the Turkish navy became most formidable. There were fleets on the Mediterranean, sweeping its shores to Gibraltar, and on the Asiatic Seas, contending with the Portuguese beyond the gate of Bab elmandeb. Elated by a victory over the ships of Spain and Italy at Jerba, Solyman resolved to attempt the reduction of Malta, whose fortified rock was now

occupied by the Knights of St. John, to whom the Emperor Charles V. had given the island after their expulsion from Rhodes; but the expedition failed after a siege of five months (1565).

Solyman, like our own Edward I., even in old age and weakness could not resist the blast of the battle-trumpet. He died in his tent in Hungary, while engaged in the siege of a town. Under his reign the Ottoman rule extended from the Danube to the Tigris, from the Falls of Dnieper to the Falls of Nile.

Under Selim II. Yemen, Cyprus, and Tunis were added to the Turkish Empire; but an almost fatal blow was received by Turkey, when her fleet under Ali Moezzin was all but annihilated at *Lepanto* by Don John of Austria (1571).

Signs of growing importance, however, were visible at this time in the relations of Turkey towards the rest of Europe. Though war was still raging with Austria, the most formidable obstacle to Turkish encroachments in the heart of Europe, yet a commercial treaty was concluded between Turkey and England in the reign of Murad III. (1574-95.)

Ahmed I. (1603-17) was no match for the European Rudolf II., who defeated the Turks in many battles, and relieved Austria from the ignoble burden of a tribute for Hungary, exacted by the strong hand of Solyman.

During the supremacy of Osman II. and Murad IV. the Janisseries took the upper hand in Turkey, which they long maintained. Osman was strangled by them; and they proclaimed, but afterwards deposed, his uncle Mustapha. Bagdad was taken by the Persians in the reign of Murad, but was ceded by treaty in 1639.

Mohammed IV. (1648-87) had a long and troubled reign. After many losses in Candia and elsewhere, after enduring severe defeats from the Venetians by sea, the administration of Koprili restored Turkey to some strength and prosperity. Candia was re-taken in 1669. Podolia was wrested from the Poles, who were menaced under the very walls of Lemberg. And a gleam of success—brighter than any of these—shone on the Turkish arms,

when in 1682 Kara Mustapha, Serasker of the Turkish army, led his forces into Hungary, and encamped under the walls of Vienna. The fate of the city seemed to be sealed, and the Crescent for a time outshone the Cross. But an army, in which John Sobieski led the Polish legion, came to the rescue; Mustapha was completely routed and chased into Hungary, which in three years was swept clean of the turbaned hosts. This was only a beginning of reverses. The Venetians forced the Turks to evacuate Greece: and a revolt of Janissaries—who played in modern Turkey the rôle of the Praetorians in ancient Rome—dethroned the Sultan.

Turkey even now appeared to be breaking up into that sickness, which seems to deepen every century. The luxurious debauchery of some Sultans—the turbulent insolence of the Janissaries—the loss of some frontier provinces, and the difficulty of maintaining her ground in Europe in the face of enemies like Austria, Russia, and Venice—combined to increase the troubles of her national existence. While Mustapha II. (1695–1703) was Sultan, Peter the Great concluded an alliance with Austria to curb and repress the Turks. Azov was taken: Prince Eugene inflicted a signal defeat upon the Turks at *Zenta* by the Theiss (1697); and the Peace of *Carlowitz* dismembered the Turkish Empire, giving the districts between the Danube and the Theiss to Austria, the Morea to Venice, Podolia to Poland, and Azov to Russia.

Ahmed III. (1703–30) was the host of Charles XII. of Sweden, when that monarch came, a beaten refugee, to seek safety in Turkey after the disasters of Pultowa. The Sultan declared war against Russia on behalf of his impracticable guest.

Peter the Great, neglecting a lesson he might easily have learned from his own successful tactics against Charles XII., crossed the Fruth into Moldavia, and suffered himself to be cooped up in a position with no outlet. After three days' fighting, the cause of the Russians seemed hopeless, when the Czarina Catherine bought off the Grand-Vizier by collecting all the plate and jewels in the camp, and sending them to him with a letter.

In 1714 the Morea was taken from the Venetians by Turkey in a single campaign; and the possession of this peninsula was confirmed by the Treaty of *Passarowitz* (1718), by which great concessions of territory in Wallachia and Servia were made to Austria.

In the reign of Ahmed III. the art of printing was introduced into Turkey.

During the reign of Mahmud I. (1730-54) there was unsuccessful war in Persia; and the game of "give and take" was continued between Turkey and Austria, the latter of whom, by the Peace of Belgrade (1739), ceded that fortress, with the provinces of Servia and Wallachia.

The growing strength of Russia, and the proximity of that gigantic territory to Turkey now made it the most formidable foe of the Ottomans. Peter's dream of making the Black Sea a Russian lake involved the conquest of Turkey; and the successors of that great Czar made many attempts to realize that portion of his plan of conquest.

A six years' war between Russia and Turkey began in 1768. On the part of the Russians, Rumanzow overran the Crimea; and in 1770 a Russian fleet, sailing round from Cronstadt, destroyed the Turkish fleet in the Bay of Chesme—a name to be ranked with Lepanto and Navarino among the disasters of the Ottoman navy.

The war continued under Ahmed IV.; but it was not until Kamenski penetrated to the passes of the Balkhan that Turkey sought peace. The treaty, signed at Kuchuk-Kainarji (1774), gave important possessions and privileges to Russia, among which were the fortresses of Azov, Kertch, and Yenikale—all the country between the Bog and the Dnieper—the free navigation of the Black Sea, and a right of passage through the Bosphorus and Dardanelles—and the protectorship of all the Greek churches in the Turkish Empire. A vain attempt to recover the Crimea from Russia was made in 1787.

Selim III. (1789-1807).—A second war with Catherine of Russia broke out in 1787. Austria was in alliance with Russia

against the Turks. Potemkin, the favourite of Catherine, assumed the chief command, in which he enjoyed the aid of Suwarow. At the battle of Kinburn (1787) the last-named general ordered his infantry to fling away their knapsacks and charge with the bayonet; and, when the Cossacks fled before the strongly posted Turks, he turned them to victory with the taunting words, "Fly, cowards, and leave me to the mercy of the Turks." A complete defeat of the Turks at Fokshany took place in 1789. The siege of Ismail was left to Suwarow. Promising his soldiers the plunder of the town, and ordering no quarter to be given, the general gave the signal before daylight by crowing like a cock, and the stormers advanced. Twice the Russians shrank from the cannonade, but returned to the attack. The 1790 slaughtered, after the assailants succeeded in scaling the A.D. walls, literally lay in heaps along the streets. Suwarow's despatch ran thus: "The fort is taken; and I am in it." This extraordinary general, who was wont to summarize the whole art of war in three words, "Advance and strike," won the affection of the soldiers by bearing their hardships—sleeping on straw under a sheep-skin, and eating black bread. He cultivated a rough address, and gave his orders in blunt laconisms.

This war was concluded by a peace made at Szistowa with Austria, and the Treaty of Jassy with Russia (1792).

In 1798, France being then at peace with Turkey, Bonaparte suddenly invaded Egypt. The Mamelukes withstood his march to Cairo; but their brilliant cavalry charges could make no impression on the French squares, and they were scattered in the battle of the Pyramids. Nelson destroyed 1798 the French fleet at the Nile; and the declaration of war A.D. against France by the Sultan excited an insurrection at Cairo. This Napoleon disposed of with his usual pitiless determination, blowing open with cannon the doors of the Great Mosque, where the insurgents had taken refuge, and staining its pavements with the blood of massacre. Then marching into Palestine he besieged Jaffa, where a great massacre of prisoners took place among the sand hills. But at Acre, the key of Syria and the

East, Bonaparte was repelled by the united efforts of the Turks under Djezzar Pacha and some English ships under Sir Sidney Smith. After fifty-four days he raised the siege and went to Egypt; and, as he marched, one of his marshals wrote: "The whole country is on fire behind us." Homestead and harvest alike blackened in his destroying path.

England retook Egypt from the French under Menou by the battle of Alexandria, which cost her a brave general, Sir Ralph Abercromby. And, when Cairo capitulated, the province was made over to Turkey once more.

By a compact with Russia, Turkey now acquired the protectorship of the Ionian Islands, newly formed into a republic. French influence grew strong at the Porte, so much so that Russia and England combined (1806) in a hostile movement against Turkey. Admiral Duckworth, forcing his way through the Straits, threatened a bombardment of Constantinople, but was obliged to hasten back to a more open sea. Selim had been reforming the army and other portions of the State; but the defeat of the Turkish arms on the Danube, which the populace ascribed to these changes, excited a revolt of the Janissaries, by whom he was dethroned.

The reign of **Mahmud II.** (1808-39) was fruitful in great events. A devoted vizier, Mustapha Bairaktar, saved the Sultan's power by blowing up himself and a number of the revolted Janissaries. But at first every province of the Empire seemed suddenly smitten with the desire of revolt. Most formidable of the insurgents were Ali Pacha of Janina, who revolted in Epirus; and Mehemet Ali, who in Egypt aimed at securing hereditary power. The Peace of Bucharest (1812) was a necessity, for troubles were thickening. How the Greeks won their independence will be narrated in a separate section. The battle of Navarino (1827) humbled Turkish pride, and secured the independence of Greece.

The destruction of the **Janissaries** was one of the most important achievements of Sultan Mahmud II. The origin of this famous military body, first organized by Amurath, has been

already inclined. They soon learned to abuse their power. By rising in revolt, they could turn the scale of the Empire; "could descend the head of an unpopular Visior, and depose or murder an unpopular Sultan." The attempt to restore their old discipline cost Selim his life. But Mahmud waited for a fitting time. When he was ready, they mutinied, only to find themselves ringed round with shotted cannon. The 1826
A.D. Atmeidan flowed with the blood of 20,000 Janissaries; and the name disappeared from the list of existing corps. It was a terrible but necessary blow.

In 1825 war began between Russia and Turkey. Two campaigns, in the second of which Adrianople and Erzeroum fell, led to the Treaty of Adrianople (1829), by which Russia acquired Kara near the Caucasus, and secured an independent administration for Moldavia and Wallachia.

The rebellion of **Mehemet Ali**, Pacha of Egypt, against the Porte originated in the desire of this ambitious prince to be possessor of Syria, which he accordingly invaded. His son, Ibrahim Pacha, had advanced in 1832 with a victorious army to Kutayah, little more than one hundred miles from Constantinople. But the interference of Russia averted the danger that menaced the Turkish capital. A renewal of the war, after Syria had been ceded to Mehemet, took place in 1839, a short time before the death of Mahmud II. The Turkish army was defeated by Ibrahim and Nisib—the Turkish fleet under the Capudan Pacha had deserted to the Egyptian side—and nothing seemed more than the overthrow of Constantinople itself, when again intervention turned the scale. An allied fleet, Austro-English, cannonaded several of the Syrian ports, Acre amongst them; and the rebellious pachas were compelled to make terms, resigning Syria on condition that the Pashalic of Egypt should be made hereditary in their family.

During these events **Abdul-Medjid** (1839–61) became Sultan. His Visior, an eminent statesman, named Roushid Pacha, who, by residing as a diplomatist in Western Europe, had acquired wider notions of government than those prevailing in Turkey,

framed a system of reform called the *Tanzimat*, which was published in 1839. The principal objects of this decree were 1839 —(1) the control of the cruel and despotic pachas who had A.D. hitherto bought their posts by auction, and (2) the relief of the Christian subjects of the Porte from certain penalties and grievances. This document kindled a flame of opposition among the old Turkish Conservatives, who regarded the measure as aimed directly against the Moslemism of the State; and the conditions of the measure have been very imperfectly carried out.

Russia, as the head-quarters of the Greek Church, to which the Turkish Christians belonged, after a time demanded the protectorate of the Holy Places at Jerusalem, and occupied Moldavia and Wallachia, the Danubian principalities, in order to secure what is called "a material guarantee." This brought on what is known as the Russian War, in which England and France gave aid to Turkey. The incidents of the struggle have been already narrated. The bravery of the Turks was signally displayed in their defence of Silistria on the Danube, where their operations were directed by the British officers Butler and Nasmyth. The massacre of Sinope, where a Russian squadron from Sebastopol destroyed a few Turkish frigates and slew two thousand men, excited much anger throughout Europe. In the negotiations that preceded the war, the Czar Nicholas referred to Turkey under the metaphor of "a sick man," whose possessions lay ready for spoliation and partition.

Upon the death of Abdul-Medjid in 1861, his brother, Abdul-Aziz, who now holds the throne, became Sultan of Turkey.

MODERN TURKISH CHRONOLOGY.

	A.D.
Constantinople taken by the Turks,	1453
Conquest of Greece,	1453
Turks gain a footing at Otranto,	1480
Solyman the Great takes Belgrade,	1520
Battle of Mohacz,	1526
Turks repulsed at Vienna,	1529
Battle of Lepanto,	1571
Turks acquire Bagdad,	1639
Turks defeated at Vienna by John Sobieski,	1683

	A. D.
Peace of Carlowitz,	1699
Peace of Passarowitz,	1718
Turkish fleet burned at Chios,	1770
Island captured by Suwarow,	1790
Battle of the Pyramids (Egypt),	1798
All Parties of Janina revolt,	1820
War of Greek Independence,	1821-30
Flight of Missolonghi,	1825-6
Destruction of the Janissaries,	1826
Battle of Navarino,	1827
Rumelians at Andros,	1828
First war with Mahomet Ali,	1832
Publication of <i>Tournaïot</i> ,	1839
Second war with Mahomet Ali,	1839-40
War with Russia (Crimean War),	1853-6
Defence of Siliaria,	1854

GREECE (1820 to the Present Time).

The rebellion of Ali Pacha in 1820 gave the Greeks an opportunity of doing what they had long been desirous to try—rising in revolt against their Turkish masters and oppressors. This Albanian chief, who had seized the pachalic of Janina, and who ruled all Epirus, with parts of Albania, Thessaly, and Western Greece, became so formidable to the Porte that a muster of the provinces was made and the usurper was deprived of Janina and his freedom (1822). His head was then cut off.

The sparks of Greek patriotism had already begun to grow to flame. In Moldavia Ypsilanti made a movement for freedom, which was drowned in blood.

But the Greeks met at Epidaurus, when Mavrocordato was proclaimed president. One of his best helpers was Marco Bontaris, a Sulistie chief, who commanded a remnant of that brave race, which had escaped from the butcheries of Ali Pacha.

There are two sites in modern Greece, round which the chief interest of this war of independence centres—Missolonghi and Navarino.

The former was defended at first by Bontaris, who held out until the Turks had raised the siege. On the approach of another

force he sallied out to meet them; and, organizing a night attack on their camp, carried it out successfully, but received mortal wounds in the encounter (1823). His name is honoured as the greatest hero of the war—the Leonidas of modern Greece. Missolonghi also derives a mournful interest from the death of Lord Byron the poet, who was cut off there by fever, brought on by his efforts in behalf of Greece (1824).

But the actual siege of Missolonghi, which may be called the central event of this Greek war, did not begin till 1825.

The place was badly fortified, and its ramparts had but poor cannon to oppose the Ottoman artillery; nevertheless, when Reschid Pacha opened his fire, it was answered with spirit, and sally after sally bore witness to the dauntless courage of the defenders. A Turkish fleet, coming to blockade the city by sea, was beaten by the Greek ships under Miaulis. The Sultan then gave the chief command to Ibrahim Pacha of Egypt, who drew a new army round the devoted place. Hunger gnawed the hearts of the garrison, yet they had no thought of surrender. Ibrahim rained shot upon the place, and rushed at the breaches all in vain, until the end came. When famine had reduced the

garrison to the necessity of eating rats and cats, they
1826 resolved to cut their way through the Turkish host.

A.D. But a traitor disclosed their plan; and, when they issued forth upon their last sally, it was to find the whole Egyptian force ready to receive the assault. Five hundred of the heroes died; some escaped, but the great bulk were made prisoners.

This event roused the sympathy of Europe; and in particular, England, Russia, and France, induced by Canning, formed a league to aid Greece in the unequal struggle. The appearance of the Egyptians on the scene had turned the scale completely in favour of the Turks, who, in spite of a brave effort by the army of Karaïskaki, made themselves masters of Athens. At this juncture, however, the Allies already named interfered—Russia, actuated by hatred towards Turkey, England and France by sympathy for Greece, and a desire to preserve the balance of power.

Sir Edward Codrington, in command of a British squadron, in conjunction with ships from France and Russia, took up his position outside the harbour of Navarino, in which 1827 the united Turkish and Egyptian fleets lay. His plan A.D. was merely passive; but a Turkish vessel fired on a boat, which drew a volley of musketry back in reply. A cannon-ball then struck the ship of the French admiral, and out blazed the fight in full fury. In a few hours the wrecks of the Turkish and Egyptian ships strewed the harbour. This battle, which took place on the 20th October 1827, obliged the Turks to evacuate the Morea.

After the victory of Navarino, Count Capo d'Istria, a native of Corfu, was formally installed as President of Greece.

In 1829 the Conference of London proclaimed the independence of Greece; but it was not acknowledged by the Sultan, until the advance of the Russians to Adrianople so menaced the capital of Turkey that a treaty, embodying this condition, was agreed to by the Porte (1829).

The next task of the intervening States was to find a fitting ruler for this troublesome little corner of the Continent. Capo d'Istria had distinct leanings towards Russia, which did not please the western statesmen. The throne was accordingly offered to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, who afterwards became King of the Belgians; but he, induced by letters from Capo d'Istria, and by his own misgivings as to his popularity and comfort among a nation so fickle and deceitful as the modern Greeks, resigned the honour after holding it for a month or two.

Otho I. (1832-62), a prince of Bavaria, then accepted the vacant crown. He found a land pinched with poverty, torn by civil dissension, infested by brigands—a sad contrast to the glorious Greece of ancient days. The presence of German troops and Bavarian officials was a sore grievance with the Greeks, who forced the King to send them away. One ministry succeeded another, Russian intrigues adding to the native complications. In 1836 Otho took to wife a princess of Oldenburg, who displayed a warlike spirit, that led her husband into trouble. In 1854 her

support of the insurgents, who raised war in the adjacent provinces of Turkey, brought the soldiers of England and France to Athens, for the purpose of binding King Otho down to a promise of neutrality.

Otho abdicated in 1862, when a Provisional Government was appointed. And in the following year Prince William of Denmark, brother of the Princess of Wales, was elected king under the title of George I., King of the Hellenes.

MODERN GREEK CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.
Revolt of Ypsilanti,	1821
Death of Bozzaris,	1823
Siege of Missolonghi,	1825-6
Battle of Navarino,	1827
Treaty of London,	1829
Election of Otho I.,	1832
Election of George I.,	1863

POLAND (1370 to the Present Time).

The ancient Polish dynasty of Piast, which had its capital first at Gnesen and then at Cracow, ended in 1370, as has been said, with the death of Casimir the Great, who acquired Galicia.

The marriage of the beautiful Queen Hedvige, daughter of Louis of Hungary, with Jagello, Duke of Lithuania, united that province to Poland (1382), and began a dynasty, which continued until the death of Sigismund Augustus in 1572. Under the reign of Jagello the power of the Teutonic Knights was crushed at the battle of Gunwald by the allied armies of Poland and Lithuania. While Casimir III. was King, the Treaty of Thorn in 1462 united the Prussian provinces with Poland; and Danzig was soon acquired as a seat of commerce.

Sigismund (1506-48) came into collision with the Russians, whom he defeated, although they managed to retain Smolensk, which they had taken. In conjunction with his minister Bonar, he reduced the kingdom to order and rule by curbing the tur-

balance of the nobles, who impeded both the *arrière ban* or general levy and the imposition of necessary taxes.

Owing to his Queen, Bona, a beautiful but dissolute daughter of the Milan Sforzas, the Court of Poland, by the introduction of refinement and courtesy from Italy and Spain, became one of the most brilliant of the period in Europe.

Under Sigismund the doctrines of the Reformation began to spread in Poland. He died in 1548.

Sigismund Augustus (1548-72) received the voluntary submission of Livonia, anxious to save itself from absorption by Russia. In his reign also occurred the Union of Poland and Lithuania, completed at the Diet of Lublin (1569). The Reformation took a yet firmer hold of the higher classes of Poland during this reign; although the King did not openly declare in favour of the Protestant doctrines.

When Henry of Valois, a French prince, who, after holding for a few months the throne to which he had been elected, escaped in disguise to France, and Stephen Bathory, a self-made Hungarian soldier, had reigned in succession, **Sigismund III. (1586-1632)**, the son of the Swedish King, was elected to the throne. It may be noted in passing that this system of electing Kings proved ultimately most injurious to Poland, for it kept the embers of civil war always alive among the discontented and disappointed factions.

Sigismund III. was completely under Jesuit control, a circumstance which excited great dissatisfaction throughout Poland. In a great war which he undertook against Russia, he at first succeeded so brilliantly that his troops, assisted by the Swedes, entered Moscow, and extorted a treaty by which Vladislav, his son, was made Czar of Moscow. But the renewal of the war ended in advantage to the Russians. Vladislav was foiled in a siege of the Russian capital.

Under Vladislav, when he ascended the throne, Poland enjoyed a long peace, until trouble arose from a revolt of the Cossacks of the Ukraine. The war with these semi-savages continued under John Casimir (1648-68).

The reign of this prince was unfortunate, in spite of his good reputation as a soldier. He was rash enough to dispute the throne of Sweden with Charles Gustavus, in consequence of which a Swedish army overran Poland, taking both Cracow and Warsaw, and driving the King into Silesia. The land lay bare and desolate; and yet it had a hold upon Polish hearts, which roused them to a great effort for its liberation. But they were at first inclined to make Charles Gustavus King, until his taunt "that a conqueror needed none to elect him monarch"

1660 stirred them into a war to curb his pride. John Casimir A.D. was restored; and in 1660 the *Peace of Oliva* was concluded. By this treaty Esthonia and Livonia were transferred from Poland to Sweden, and the independence of Prussia was confirmed. A disastrous war with Russia, ending in the loss of Smolensk and the Ukraine, filled the remainder of Casimir's reign, which closed in 1668 by his abdication.

The election of Michael Wisniowitski to the throne by the minor nobility then took place. He was forced by the same power that compelled him to the throne to pass a law forbidding the voluntary abdication of Polish Kings.

Then came the reign of the great soldier John Sobieski (1674-96). The son of the Castellan of Cracow, this eminent man served in the *mousquetaires* of Louis XIV. for a time, but soon returned to his native land to use his sword against the insurgent Cossacks in John Casimir's reign. As Grand Hetman he led an army of 20,000 against a Tartar force of five times the size, and by the destruction of the hostile hordes saved Poland. In a war with the Turks he reduced the hitherto impregnable fortresses of *Kotzim*.

The result of such fame was that, when the Diet met to elect a successor to Michael, the cry arose, "Let a Pole reign over Poland," and John III. was accordingly proclaimed.

His first duty was to redeem the regalia, then in pawn with the Jews; his next, to raise an army and face the Turks.

Surrounded in Lemberg by a great force of Ottomans, he took advantage of a snow-storm, and charged the blinded besiegers with decisive success. And in 1676, intrenched on the banks

of the Dniester, with a tremendous Turkish host in front, led by a *paşa* of Damascus, who was surnamed the Devil, from his ferocity, he kept up a twenty days' cannonade, 1676 and then with his handful of men charged the couple of A.D. hundred thousand turbans, who fled, shrieking with terror at the appearance of the "Wizard Sobieski." This produced peace.

At home dissension was eating away the strength of Poland. A dangerous weapon—the power of pronouncing a *veto* upon the sittings of the Assembly—lay in the hands of the nobles, who did not hesitate to use it when the deliberations went against their views. All movements of reform were met by this engine of anarchy.

Here Sobieski saved Europe, when the Turks lay round Vienna under Kara Mustapha, has been already narrated (1683).

The death of Sobieski, who strove in vain to stem the tide of faction and turbulence among the Polish nobles, took place in 1696. He looked sadly towards the future of his country, whose battles he had gained from time to time, but whom he was powerless to save.

Augustus II. (1697–1704) was Elector of Saxony previous to his promotion to the Polish throne. Forming a close alliance with Peter the Great of Russia, he entered into projects of war with Sweden. Invading Livonia, he formed the siege of Riga—a proceeding which called into brilliant action the military genius of Charles XII. of Sweden. The Polish cause grew worse and worse, until a battle near Clisow completed its overthrow. This failure roused such opposition that a faction raised Stanislaus Leszcinski to the throne of Poland (1704).

Stanislaus enjoyed this position—if any enjoyment there was—until the battle of Pultowa, overthrowing Charles, recalled Augustus to the throne again. Upon the death of Augustus II., Stanislaus made a second attempt to hold the Polish throne. He was besieged in Danzig by a Russo-Saxon force; and, when hope failed, he fled from the seaport in disguise. His own skilful pen gives a narration of his romantic and perilous escape.

Southerners had a firm friend in France, for his daughter Maria

was married to Louis XV. Accordingly, upon the conclusion of the Treaty of Vienna, 1735, he was presented with the Duchy of Lorraine, whither he retired to live a blameless life of devotion to his subjects, and quiet literary occupation.

During the feeble reign of Augustus III. Poland was completely under Russian influences. He was succeeded by **Stanislaus Augustus** (1764-93), the last King of Poland.

Known as Poniatowski before his accession, this handsome and accomplished man was raised to the throne by the influence of a powerful family named the Czartoryskis, who were strongly supported by Russia in their schemes. These enlightened reformers, who were actuated by patriotic motives, aimed at abolishing, and succeeded in greatly limiting, the aristocratic privilege of dissolving the Diet by the *veto* of a member. But Russia, seeing these reforms tending to the strength of Poland, threw her weight into the other scale.

In 1768, a patriotic bishop named **Krasinski** formed a confederation at Bar, a town of Podolia, for the purpose of securing Poland against the foreign influences, which had been coiling round her for many years back. But it was too late. The troops of Russia easily defeated the raw levies of the patriotic league. And when Turkey, coming to the rescue of an ancient foe, through dread of a more terrible present and future enemy, was defeated, Poland was torn asunder by her three strong neighbours, who carried off each a large tract of territory.

This act of oppression, known in history as the **First Partition** of Poland, made over to Austria Galicia and Lodomeria—to Prussia all Polish Prussia and the territory of the Netze—to Russia the districts between the Dwina, Dnieper, and Drutsch. The Polish King was left with only the shadow of his power—the real authority being exercised by a Russian envoy resident at Warsaw. A new Constitution was forced upon the land; but this became distasteful to Prussia, who promised to assist the Poles in framing a better, which was promulgated in 1791. It abolished the *veto*, and declared the

thence of Poland hereditary in the Saxon line. But the Russians stirred up a confederacy against this system. It met at Targowica. Secretly joined by both the King and the Prussians, Russia then proceeded to a **Second Partition** (1793), which gave her 4000 additional square miles, and made Prussia possessor of the important Hanseatic towns of Danzig and Thorn.

Then arose in the person of **Thaddeus Kosciuszko** one of those patriotic souls, which shine out like sudden stars when the night of history grows darkest.

The presence of insolent Russian troops in Poland, especially after the **Second Partition**, excited a wide-spread discontent, which easily fanned itself into the flame of rebellion. The fittest leader that could be found for the national party was Kosciuszko, who had learned in the battle-fields of America to use his sword and his brain.

Putting himself at the head of a hastily-raised force, many of whom had no better weapon than a scythe tied on a pole, the hero made Cracow a centre of operations. His **1794** first important collision with the Russians at *Raclawice* A.D. resulted in a decided victory, although the enemy were stronger in number. Encouraged by this success, the people of Warsaw expelled their Russian masters; and for two months, lying in an intrenched camp before the capital, Kosciuszko kept at bay a host of Russians and Prussians. Then Suwarow came down like a vulture on the swoop, leading an overwhelming mass against the doomed city. Kosciuszko, nothing daunted, met him with a small force at Macziewice, about fifty miles from Warsaw. The odds were too tremendous. After a struggle of the fiercest, the gallant Poles gave way, and their leader, bleeding and captive, cried, "This is the end of Poland." The suburb of Prague, commemorated by Campbell in his stirring verses, was then stormed by Suwarow, and the Polish capital surrendered.

Kosciuszko, after being taken as a prisoner to St. Petersburg, was released, and for many years wandered in America, France, and Switzerland. In the last he died (1817) from the effects of a fall from his horse.

In 1795 Poland was finally dismembered, the ~~shares~~ of her remaining territory, soaked with patriot blood, going to the same three spoilers as before — her neighbours, **1795** Russia, Austria, and Prussia. The King, Stanislaus **A.D.** Poniatowski, was permitted to live on a pension at St. Petersburg.

During the Napoleonic Wars the hopes of Poland revived more than once. These grew bright, when the French defeated the Prussians at Jena and elsewhere; but the Treaty of Tilsit clouded the sky of Poland once more. Polish Prussia was formed into the Duchy of Warsaw, under a representative constitution and a French code of laws. This was unsuccessfully invaded in 1809 by Austria.

The Congress of Vienna arranged the affairs of Poland. Prussia received the Duchy of Posen, a portion of the Duchy of Warsaw; Austria received certain territories; Cracow was made a republic; and the rest was erected into the Kingdom of Poland under the Czar of Russia.

Splendid promises of liberty and respect for Polish nationality were made by Russia, but such were too favourable to take the shape of performance. The cloven foot of tyranny peeped out in many ways, but especially in the affairs of education.

In 1803 an eminent Pole, Prince **Adam Czartoryski**, had been made Curator of the University of Wilna, where he strove to foster a spirit of nationality among the students. Some of them were charged with sedition, being provoked to such by the despotism of the Grand Duke Constantine of Russia, who acted as viceroy of Poland. The system of repression, with regard to speech and writing, was put forcibly in action. Many of the rash youths went to work in the mines of Siberia for their patriotism; and Czartoryski resigned his office in the university.

Matters grew to a crisis, when, in 1830, a spark from the barricades of Paris fell upon Poland, **1830** charged with a most inflammable people. The students of the military school joined the students of the university, and **A.D.** the two effected a union with the Polish troops. The Belve-

der Palace at Warsaw, with all its girdling moats, could scarcely protect Constantine, who owed his escape to some friendly soldiers. After a while the whole Polish army declared in favour of the insurgents, and Constantine was permitted to withdraw his troops and guns from Poland. Adam Czartoryski was made President of the National Government. But the Russian army poured in; Prussia, though not actively hostile, watched the frontier, and would permit no supplies of any kind to enter the country. The battles of Grochow, and, yet more signal, Ostrolenka, resulted in favour of Russia; (1831); ammunition and hope were both well-nigh exhausted by the end of the campaign; and at length Warsaw opened her gates once more to the despot.

If Poland had suffered tens of injuries before the Revolution, she suffered hundreds after it. Everything was done to crush the national spirit, which had caused the insurrection; and this unhappy land, whose destiny of misery somewhat recalls Italy to the mind, felt that there was indeed an iron hand under the velvet glove, with which Russia had at first begun to mould her disorganized affairs. Wilna and Warsaw lost their universities; the libraries and museums were carried away to Russia; and many of Poland's most eminent and active spirits found a home in foreign lands. Amongst them was Czartoryski, who went to reside in Paris.

The little republic of Cracow, which had been left independent only because the spoilers could not decide which of them should possess it, became in 1846 a focus of insurrection, which, however, was speedily trampled out. Cracow was then annexed to the Austrian Empire.

There was a collision in 1862 between Poland and Russia. Led by Langiewicz, the insurgents were beaten near Gogonic, after which the chiefs of the patriotic party crossed the Vistula, and emigrated to Austria.

MODERN POLISH CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.
Union of Lublin,	1569
Peace of Oliva,	1600
Battle of the Dniester,	1676
John Sobieski,	1674-96
Massacre of Protestants at Thorn,	1724
Confederation of Bar,	1768
First Partition of Poland,	1772
Second Partition of Poland,	1793
Revolution under Kosciuszko,	1794
Defence of Warsaw,	1794
Third and final Partition,	1795
Revolution under Czartoryski,	1831-31
Battles of Growchow and Ostrolenka,	1831
Made a part of Russian Empire,	1832

RUSSIA (1462 to the Present Time).

The emancipation of Russia from the Moguls, and the foundation of the Russian monarchy as one of the powers of Europe, must be ascribed to **Ivan III.** (1462-1505), who conquered Novgorod. The grasp of his strong hand drew together the numerous petty states into which the great plain was parcelled out.

The reign of **Ivan IV.** (1533-84) was remarkable for the many seeds of future prosperity sown during its lapse of fifty years. The introduction of printing—the establishment of a trade between England and Archangel—the reform of the laws—the institution of a corps of archers called the *Strélitz*, notable as the first germ of the Russian army—were among the events of the reign. Personally, Ivan the Terrible, as this chief was called, was a savage of brutal ferocity, who struck his eldest son dead with a blow of his own hand; but the terror he excited had a wholesome influence on the country.

With **Feodor** (Theodore) died the royal line of Ruric (1598). It had existed for 736 years, and numbered 56 sovereigns.

After fifteen years of confusion, during which two impostors, a monk and a schoolmaster, personated Demetrius, the murdered brother of Feodor; and Vladislav of Poland, who sought the

throne himself, penetrated to Moscow, the unanimous voice of Russia called Michael Romanoff to the head of affairs.

During this reign (1613-45) Russia enjoyed a strength-giving rest, which Michael secured by wise concessions to Sweden and Poland. He was forced to restore serfdom; but, by concluding commercial treaties, he advanced the prosperity of Russia.

The reigns of Michael's two successors—Alexis, who was troubled by a revolt of the Don Cossacks, and Feodor, under whom occurred the first war with Turkey—carry on the narrative to the time of Peter the Great (1689-1725), to whom, beyond question, Russia owed her sudden rise from semi-obscurity to commanding influence.

Ivan and Peter, two sons of Alexis, were crowned jointly, under the regency of Sophia, sister of the former, who, having the *Strélitzes* on her side, aimed at absolute command. But a revolution in favour of Peter overthrew her schemes, and made him sole Czar (1689). He was then only seventeen.

Reign of Peter the Great.—When Peter found himself master of Russia, he began to make his army what it ought to be. Assisted by Le Fort, a native of Geneva, who had been his tutor, he dressed and drilled a couple of regiments in the European fashion, and, when the engine he had been improving and strengthening was ready, he tried it with great success against Azov, which he took from the Turks (1696). In this a flotilla, built upon the Don, and noted as being the rough nucleus of the Russian navy, aided him much.

His visit to Western Europe is well known. For about two years he resided in Holland and England, devoting himself to the study of ship-building and certain branches of engineering; and in order to gain a true insight into the nature of the work he desired to understand, he hired himself as a common carpenter, and went through all the details of the mechanical labour. A revolt of the *Strélitz* Guards recalled him from this tour, and he at once saw the necessity of abolishing a corps which might come to be as troublesome as the Janissaries were for centuries at Constantinople.

The introduction of European fashions and life among his subjects also engaged his attention upon his return home.

The leading events of his reign are connected with Sweden, with whose King, Charles XII., he engaged in fierce conflict for nine years. The great temptation that allured Peter into the Swedish war was the desire to improve his sea-coast.

At first Charles was victorious. The battle of *Narva* afforded proof to Peter that there was yet a weakness in his newly-organized army. But, as he philosophically said, "Those Swedes will soon teach us to beat them."

While Charles was engaged in his Polish war, Peter occupied Ingria and Carelia. Signs of advancement in arts and comfort were visible everywhere in Russia. A new capital—St. Petersburg—was founded in 1703; the University of Moscow was established; and the sound of the printing-press became frequent in the land. All the while, too, Peter was gathering strength for another struggle with Charles of Sweden; and at last all was ready.

Charles invaded Russia—a fatal step (1707). As he marched on, leading his men deeper and deeper into the deadly wilderness, which Peter had prepared for his reception, every step was a new seal of death. When he was sufficiently far, and his men were reduced by frost and famine to a crew of spectres, attempting the siege of Pultowa, Peter surrounded them with a fresh army of 70,000 men. The result, in spite of desperate valour on the part of the Swedes, was a total rout. Charles fled to Turkey.

The Swedish King must have derived a pleasant consolation, two years later, from the disgrace which fell on the Russian arms by the Pruth, when Peter and his army were saved from an overwhelming mass of Turks, who had surrounded them, only by the craft of the Czarina Catherine, who bought off the vizier with her jewels. This disaster cost Russia also Peter's first conquest, Azov, which was restored by treaty to the Turks.

After another tour of Europe, Peter found himself obliged to

try and executed his son Alexis on a charge of conspiracy. The young man died in prison; but it is uncertain whether by fair or foul means.

The death of Charles XII. at Fredericshald caused the Swedish war to lose its energy; and in 1721 was concluded the *Peace of Nystadt*, by which Russia became possessed of Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, and part of Carelia. Soon afterwards Peter assumed the title of Emperor. His last expedition was to Persia, where he gained some territory along the Caspian Sea. He died of fever in 1725.

Peter's widow ruled for two years as Catherine I. She had been originally a peasant girl of Livonia, and her first husband was a sergeant of dragoons. Prince Menzikoff, the favourite minister of Peter, who had also risen from the lowest station, maintained complete ascendancy during this short reign. Under Peter II. (1727-30) Menzikoff was sent to Siberia, and the Dolgorouki family rose to supreme influence in the State. They in their turn fell under Anna (1730-40), during whose reign the Persian conquests of Peter the Great were abandoned.

A revolution now placed on the Russian throne Elizabeth, the daughter of Peter the Great and Catherine (1740-62). During her reign we find Russia for the first time assuming distinct prominence as a great military power in Europe. As the result of a war with her ancient foe Sweden, she acquired the greater portion of Finland (1743). But her share in the *Seven Years' War*, as the ally of Austria, won greater glory on a more conspicuous field. Though bloodily defeated in 1758 at Zorndorff, the Russian soldiers, engaging with the troops of Frederic the Great, gained two signal victories at *Gross Jagerdorff* and *Kunersdorff*, and shared in the occupation of Berlin (1760). Elizabeth died before the conclusion of peace.

The dethronement and imprisonment of Peter III., after a reign of six months, during which this prince made peace with Prussia, led to the accession of his wife Catherine II. (1762-96), an extremely profligate woman, who was not ill-pleased to hear that her husband had been strangled in his cell.

Her domestic policy was stern but salutary ; her foreign policy aggressive, especially in its relations with Poland and Turkey. Prince **Potemkin**, a soldier of fortune, who had been instrumental in securing the throne for Catherine, was for a time her favourite, and always maintained a great influence over the Empress, who built the Taurida Palace for him at St. Petersburg.

We have already seen how Poland, distracted by the conflicts of the Dissidents and the Roman Catholics, and fatally injured by the evils of her own Constitution, fell a prey to Prussia and other States.

The Polish war entangled Russia, nothing loath, in a war with Turkey, which gave aid to the revolted Catholics of Poland. This contest, ending with the Treaty of Kainarji, secured the independence of the Crimea from Turkish rule, and gave Russia a hold upon the Black Sea. In 1784 the Russians took a further step and added the Crimea to their own Empire.

A second Turkish war broke out in 1787. Potemkin and his lieutenants, prominent among whom was Suwarow, defeated the Turks so completely at Oczakow, Ismail, and elsewhere, that they were glad to conclude the Treaty of Jassy (1792), by which the frontiers of Russia were advanced to the Dniester.

Potemkin died in 1792, and Catherine in 1796.

Paul I. (1796–1801) succeeded his mother Catherine. His kind treatment of Kosciuszko and other Poles seemed to promise well ; but he soon showed his real nature in petty tyrannies regarding dress and etiquette and more important remodellings in the various departments of the State.

At first he engaged in war with France. Suwarow, who had been dismissed for sneering at the greased queues and tailed coats in which Paul, imitating German fashions, had dressed the Russian soldiery, was recalled to command. With a combined force of Austrians and Russians he fought brilliantly in Italy (1799), where among other victories he inscribed upon the Russian banners the words *Cassano* and *Novi*. In Switzerland he was less successful. Crossing the St. Gothard to the assistance of Korsakov, who was threatened by Massena, he found himself too

late, and was hemmed in by a French army in the valley of the Ressa. However, by leading his men in single file over the mountains by a chamois-path, he escaped this peril. The Emperor, tickle in all he did, recalled the veteran, who reached St. Petersburg only to die (1800). The combined fleets of Russia and Turkey had meanwhile taken the Ionian Islands.

Napoleon, who read character quickly, gained the good opinion of Paul, after the battle of Marengo, by sending back all the Russian prisoners in France, with a supply of new clothing and muskets. A speedy result of this was the seizure of all English ships in Russian harbours; and the conclusion of the *Convention of the North* with Sweden and Denmark, by which these nations, forming an Armed Neutrality, resolved to resist the searching of their vessels by Britain. The secret of Napoleon's desire to be on friendly terms with Russia lay in the fact "that Russia held the keys of India." A secret expedition to India, by way of the Caspian Sea and Persia, was actually planned, when two events broke the alliance between Russia and France. One was the dissolution of the Northern Convention by the bombardment of Copenhagen (1801), and the other was the death of Paul. On the night of the 24th March a number of officers appeared in his apartments, and insisted on his signing a deed of abdication on the ground of mental incapacity. He violently refused; and in the struggle that followed was strangled.

Alexander I. (1801-25) maintained a peace with France until his indignation was roused by the murder of the Duke D'Enghien and Napoleon's elevation to an imperial throne. He joined Austria, and had a share in the disasters of Austerlitz, at which field he was present in person. After Prussia had been humbled at Jena, Napoleon pressed on to meet the armies of Russia under Bennigsen, whom he defeated at *Eylau* and *Friedland*. The Treaty of Tilsit, concluded between Napoleon and the Czar on a raft in the middle of the Niemen, added Russia to the adherents of the French Emperor. The common ground, upon which these lately rival potentates agreed to forget their differences, was "hatred of England."

In accordance with this treaty Russia made war on Sweden in 1808, which ended in the complete conquest of Finland. A Turkish war went on intermittently for six years (1806-12); but ceased for a time during the existence of friendly relations between France and Russia. But it was not natural that these friendly relations should continue. Russia was obliged to accede to the "Continental System" of Napoleon, which exercised so blighting an influence on her commerce, owing to the stoppage of all connection with England, that a cry of discontent arose. The seizure of Oldenburg by Napoleon, against which Alexander protested, hastened the crisis, and war broke out in 1812.

Napoleon in Russia.—Assembling a force of French, Germans, Poles, Italians, and Prussians, amounting in all to nearly 500,000 men, Bonaparte crossed the Niemen into Russia (June 25th, 1812). Ere he left Wilna, his head-quarters in Lithuania, a foretaste of terrors to come displayed itself; for disease already laid its grasp upon the invading force. The Russians fell back; Napoleon followed, sensible that to advance was his only hope of keeping so enormous a mass of men together. As it was, 100,000 were lost by sickness or desertion during his march through Lithuania. At Smolensk there was a battle (Aug. 16); but the Russians evacuated the city. A more terrible conflict occurred at Borodino (Sept. 7). Although the Russians left the invaders masters of the field, so great was Napoleon's loss that he might well regard it as a victory of most doubtful gain. A week later, the French entered the open gates of Moscow, and marched through silent streets, with only here and there the figure of some prowling thief. A fire, which broke out in the coach-builders' street, excited little attention, after it had been extinguished. Napoleon took up his quarters in the ancient **Kremlin**. But that night the red glare was seen again, bursting forth in many places, and the wind caused the flames to spread with such fury that even the French Emperor in the Kremlin incurred some danger. It was currently stated that this conflagration was purposely kindled by the Russians, who wished to burn the invaders out of Moscow. But Rostopchin, the governor of Moscow, flatly denied this,

stating that the fire was due to the drunken French soldiery, and also to such inhabitants as preferred burning their houses to letting them fall into the hands of the invaders.

The French, unable to obtain food, lived for weeks upon salt horse. On the 19th October, the weather being deceitfully fine, the retreat began. Harassed by clouds of **1812** Cossacks under the Hetman Platoff, the invading army, **A.D.** now reduced to 120,000, struggled homewards: but how few were to see that home! Then earlier than usual (Nov. 6) the Russian winter descended with sleet and ice. By the time the army reached the **Beresina**, over which they had to fight their way, only 12,000 remained. At Smorgoni, Napoleon, leaving the army to Murat, hurried forward in a sledge; and issued a bulletin, telling Europe of the complete destruction of his army. When the spring thaw came, more than 300,000 dead bodies were collected and buried along the track of that dreadful march.

Alexander of Russia, joining in the coalition against Napoleon, was present at the battles of Dresden and Leipzig, and was one of the Allied Sovereigns who entered Paris in triumph. Accompanied by the King of Prussia, he visited England, and was greeted with enthusiasm. After Waterloo he formed a league with Prussia and Austria, to which was given as a name *The Holy Alliance*, its object being the preservation of peace and the suppression of revolutions on Christian principles!

During the remaining years of his reign, Alexander made various tours through the different portions of his vast Empire. On one of these journeys he was seized with fever at Taganrog, where he died (1825). There were whispers of poison: but the rumour seems to have been groundless; although it has been epigrammatically said "that assassination is the natural death of a Russian Czar."

Nicholas I. (1825-55) succeeded his brother. Sketches have been already given, in the proper places, of the revolution of 1830 in Poland, and the successful campaigns in Turkey, which resulted in the Treaty of Adrianople.

The relations between Russia and Great Britain were imperilled in 1838, when a Persian army, officered by Russians, advanced against Herat, the position of which in the north-western angle of Afghanistan causes it to be regarded as one of the keys of India. But the attack failed. The suspicion, that Russia looks with a covetous eye upon India, caused some people to trace the beginnings of the Indian Mutiny to the intrigues of Russian emissaries.

The interference of Russia, when she gave aid to Austria in crushing the Hungarian rising of 1848, has been already indicated. In 1849 Görgei surrendered at Vilagos near Groswarden to the Russians, who had already won several battles.

The dispute which led to the Russian War, as it is called in Britain, concerned the Holy Places at Jerusalem. The monks of the Greek and Latin Churches contended about the temple and the sepulchre; and the Turks, who were masters in the city, made arrangements for repair which pleased neither side. Menzikoff went to Constantinople to demand redress of the Greek Church grievances; and, when none that Russia would accept as satisfactory was offered, he declared that the Czar would seize a "material guarantee." Russian troops then entered Wallachia (July 2nd, 1853).

That no concessions on the part of Turkey would have satisfied Russia was evident from a secret proposal made by Nicholas to Great Britain to effect a partition of the Turkish Empire, of which the British lion's share was to be Egypt.

The events of the late *Russian War* (1853-56) have been already alluded to. During its progress the death of Nicholas (1855) raised to the throne his son **Alexander**. Although the title of Czar has been used more than once in the preceding pages to distinguish the Sovereign of this great Empire, it may be noted that the fuller title, since the days of Peter the Great, has been "Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russias."

An indirect connection has recently arisen between Britain and Russia by the marriage of Dagmar, Princess of Denmark, to the Czarowitch or eldest surviving son of the Emperor Alexander.

This lady, who was received into the Greek Church as Maria Fedorowna, giving up her own prettier name of Dagmar, is the sister of the Princess of Wales.

MODERN RUSSIAN CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.
Line of Rurik ends,	1598
House of Romanoff begins	1613
Reign of Peter the Great,	1689-1725
Battle of Narva,	1700
Battle of Poltava,	1709
Peace of Nysselt,	1721
Crimson becomes a Russian dominion,	1784
Suwarow's campaign in Italy,	1799
The Armed Neutrality,	1800
Murder of Czar Paul,	1801
Battle of Austerlitz,	1805
Treaty of Tilsit,	1807
Napoleon's Russian Campaign,	1812
War with Turkey,	1828
War with Poland,	1830
The Russian War (Crimean),	1853-56

ASIA IN MODERN TIMES.

General Features.—The history of Asia during the last four centuries—i.e., since Vasco de Gama made his celebrated voyage round the Cape in 1498, opening an ocean-path to India and the East—has been a commentary upon that ancient prophecy which declares "that Japhet shall dwell in the tents of Shem." In the work of colonization and conquest the British have taken the lead. The historical interest centres in four countries—India, Persia, China, and Japan.

HISTORY OF INDIA (1525-1858).

Baber, a descendant of Timur, invaded India from the north early in the sixteenth century, and founded in the basin of the Ganges a Mogul Empire, of which he made Delhi the capital (1525).

Akbar (1556-1605) was the wisest of the native monarchs that ruled in Hindostan. The first half of his reign was given to conquest, by which he extended his sway from the Hindoo-Koosh to the Deccan, from the Brahmapootra to Candahar. But his peaceful works entitled him to a greater fame. He caused men of learning, in whose society he delighted, to translate many works from Sanscrit into Persian, which was the language of his Court. He relieved the Hindoos from obnoxious taxation, and spared no efforts to improve law, trade, and travel. The various provinces of the Mogul Empire were governed by viceroys, called *subahdars*.

The reign of **Aurungzebe** (1658-1707) was the sunset of barbaric splendour in India. Obtaining the throne by the murder of his three brothers, and the imprisonment of his aged father Shah-Jehan, this tyrant forgot the beneficence of Akbar towards the Hindoos, whom he taxed with severity. His grasp of the sceptre was so firm, that for many years of the reign the discontented spirits cowered and were at peace. But symptoms of decay became visible in the Empire. The *Mahrattas*, a tribe from the mountains between Canara and Guzerat, maintained a guerilla war under their chief Sevagi; and the *Rajpoots* in Central India flung off their allegiance, disgusted at the imposition of taxes and the wanton destruction of Hindoo temples. Suspicion, terror of assassins, and remorse for many crimes darkened the declining years of this despot.

After his death (1707) the Empire became a prey to intestine convulsions. The *Mahrattas* came in 1735 to Delhi gates, and extorted a heavy tribute from the Great Mogul. Four years later, Nadir Shah of Persia occupied Delhi, and stripped the Emperor of treasures in jewels and coin to the amount of many millions, besides depriving him of all his provinces to the west of the Indus. And all round the degraded centre of the realm rebellious viceroys—the Nizam of the Deccan, the Nabob of the Carnatic, the Subahdar of Bengal, &c.—declared themselves independent.

Then it was, amid the conflicting fragments of a great barbaric

Empire, hastening fast to dissolution, that the Europeans found the opportunity of securing a firm footing upon Indian soil.

The Portuguese were naturally the first to establish their factories in India, at Goa, Bombay, and other places. The Dutch followed, and expelled the earlier comers from Ceylon. Lancaster, an English captain, sailed from Plymouth to India in 1601; and some of his countrymen established factories at Surat (1612), having obtained a charter under the title of the East India Company.

The European competitors for empire in India were ultimately Britain and France. The latter founded a station at Pondicherry, where an enterprising governor named **Dupleix** began to dream of expelling the Britons, and securing the whole of the golden peninsula for France.

In refusing to restore Madras, an English settlement, which had been reduced in 1746 by Labourdonnais, the governor of the Mauritius, this man made his first ambitious move. A disputed succession brought him soon into more violent collision with the English. The rivals were Chunda Sahib, supported by the French, and Mohammed Ali, supported by the British: and the position they contended for was that of Nabob of the Carnatic. Supporting in addition the claims of Mirzapha Jung to be Viceroy of the Deccan, Dupleix received from that grateful usurper the control of the whole Coromandel coast (1750). The question of British or French supremacy in India came thus to turn on the relief of Trichinopoly, where Ali was besieged by the French. A young English clerk named **Clive** headed an expedition against Arcot, which he took, and where he endured a siege of fifty days successfully (1751). Next year the siege of Trichinopoly was raised, and Chunda was put to death. Dupleix went to France a baffled man; and the French hopes of conquest in India were extinguished. We know what dreams of Indian conquest floated in the mind of Bonaparte; but they were dissipated by his failures in Egypt, and other reverses.

Clive signalized himself further by the conquest of Bengal. The cruelty of Sujah Dowlah, who inhumanly confined 146

English prisoners in the Black Hole at Calcutta, causing the death of nearly all the number, led to the battle of **Plassey** (1757), which secured for Britain the Empire of India.

In 1766 Lord Clive, who had been raised to the peerage for his splendid services, extorted from the Mogul the right of collecting the revenues in Bengal, Orissa, and Bahar—a concession which made Britain mistress of the Ganges up to Patna.

Warren Hastings, appointed the first Governor-General of India in 1773, held that high position till 1785. He met with much opposition from certain of his councillors, especially from Philip Francis; and a Brahman named Nuncomar, afterwards hanged for forgery, brought many accusations against him. There were two circumstances on which the trial of Warren Hastings, after his return home, chiefly hinged. One was his treatment of the Rajah of Benares, whom he arrested and ill-treated because he would not pay a large addition to the usual tribute; the other was his treatment of the Begums (princesses) of Oude, who were starved into surrendering their wealth.

A war with **Hyder Ali** of Mysore, during the latter years of Hastings' rule, was at first disastrous. Enraged because the English did not aid him in the Mahratta war, he invaded the Carnatic (1780), where he obliged Colonel Baillie to surrender, and made himself master of Arcot. But Sir Eyre Coote defeated him near Cuddalore; and death soon cut short his career. But he left a fierce soldier behind him in the person of his son **Tippoo Saib**, one of the most determined foes the English have had in India.

While Lord Cornwallis, the successor of Warren Hastings, ruled English India, a war with Tippoo took place (1790–2). It ended in the cession of half Mysore. But Tippoo was stirred to action a few years later by French intrigues, and again the English invaded the plateau of Mysore. General Baird led an army

1799 to **Seringapatam** on the Cauvery; after a hot siege
 A.D. the city fell, and with it fell Mysore. Tippoo was found
 among the dead; and the prize of the taken city was
 committed to the charge of Colonel Arthur Wellesley, afterwards
 the great Duke of Wellington.

A war with a powerful native prince, Scindia, gave Wellesley new opportunities of training and displaying his great military genius. At Assaye (1803) he defeated a vast host of Mahrattas; and at Argaum, the Rajah of Berar. And meanwhile General Lake took Delhi and Agra on the Jumna. At Furruckabad and Bhurtpure the British were also victorious.

The conquest of Ceylon, begun in 1796 by taking the sea-coast regions from the Dutch, was completed by the subjugation of the natives in 1815.

The first Burmese War broke out in 1823. Sir Archibald Campbell took Rangoon, and stormed a succession of stockades up the river to Yandaboo, when a peace was made, giving Aracan and Tenasserim to Britain.

A disputed succession led in 1839 to the **Afghan War**. Assisting Shah Soojah against the intrigues of Dost Mohammed, an English army entered Candahar, and blew open the gates of Ghuznee with gunpowder. Mohammed fled from Cabul, of which the conquerors took possession. But trouble arose. The British were beleaguered in Cabul, and Sir William Macnaughtan, the British Envoy, trusting rashly to the honour of an Asiatic, met Akbar, the son of Dost Mohammed, in conference and was shot. A British force, marching through the snowy passes to Jelelabad, was almost annihilated. Britain then put forth her strength. Forcing the Khyber Pass, General Pollock reached Jelelabad; and the war was ended by the occupation of Cabul (1842).

Sir Charles Napier was the conqueror of **Sinde**, whose *Amirs*, or native princes, displayed such signs of hostility to the British that war was declared against them. As a result of the victories of *Muir* and *Datta* the territory was annexed in 1843.

But the **Seikhs** of the Punjaub were foes more difficult to subdue. Originally a religious sect formed in the reign of Baber by Nanak, they were moulded into a race of formidable soldiers by Runjeet Singh. Their passage of the Sutlej into British India was an overt act of war (February, 1845). At *Moodkee* and *Ferozshah* the Seikhs were defeated; but the decisive fields of this first war were *Aliwal* and *Sobraon*. The presence

of European officers in the Sikh army added much to the difficulties of the struggle; for the artillery and the fortifications of these Punjaub warriors were on that account so admirable as to be almost equal to anything the British could bring against them. The annexation of the triangular territory between the Sutlej and the Beas resulted from this struggle.

In 1848 a second Sikh War began. It arose in the shape of rebellion at Mooltan, which was garrisoned by the insurgents under Moolraj. But the city yielded in January 1849 to a strong British force. The advance of Lord Gough brought matters to a crisis. The battle of *Chillianwalla* was indecisive; but a conflict on the plain of *Goojerat*, where a band of Afghan cavalry aided the Sikhs, resulted in a complete victory for Britain (February 21st, 1849). The Punjaub was then formally proclaimed a British possession.

A second **Burmese War** (1852) arose from the insolence of the Governor of Rangoon and his superior the King of Ava. After vain demands for apology and compensation to the merchant captains who had been ill-treated, our war-steamers bombarded Martaban. The defences of Rangoon were afterwards stormed; but it was not until *Prome*, high up the river, fell before British prowess, and resisted all the efforts of the Orientals to retake it, that the King saw the need of submission. This war made Pegu a British possession.

Oude was annexed to British India in 1856. In the following year the **Indian Mutiny** broke out.

For years a restless feeling of discontent had been growing among the Mohammedan *Sepoys*, as common native soldiers are called in India; and an absurd prophecy, that in exactly a century after the battle of Plassey (1757) the English rule was to cease in India, easily gained credence among the natives. It is thought that emissaries from Russia, of whose ambitious designs on India something has been already said, aided in fomenting this discontent and stirring up the smouldering embers of rebellion. At last, however, the crisis came, the immediate occasion of outbreak being so simple as to border on the ridiculous. The new

cartridges issued to the troops, being greased in order to allow them to pass more smoothly into the barrel, excited the religious fears of the Sepoys, who pretended to find in this a device to cause them to abjure their faith; for it was necessary to put the cartridge to the lips, and thus, said they, we are forced to taste cow's fat. From this spark sprang a destroying flame.

The Mutiny broke out at **Meerut** on the 10th of May 1857, when some Sepoys broke open the prison in which their comrades were confined for refusing to bite the obnoxious cartridges. The rebels then shut themselves in **Delhi**; but happily the powder-magazine had been previously blown up. On the 4th of June the Europeans began to besiege Delhi, which fell on the 26th of September.

Lucknow, the capital of Oude, was another centre of the struggle. Shut within the Residency, the British held out bravely against overwhelming numbers of yelling mutineers. The Chief Commissioner, Sir Henry Lawrence, was killed by a shell. Then scarcity of food and the horrible odour of decaying dead caused the besieged to suffer severely. During all the summer months, from June to September, the people in the Residency hoped against hope, until at last their joyful eyes saw the troops of General Havelock approaching. He relieved the Residency, but was himself besieged there by new swarms of the enemy. The heart-broken sufferers had entered the third month of this new siege, when Sir Colin Campbell fought his way to their succour and final relief (17th Nov. 1857).

Cawnpore on the Ganges was the scene of a terrible massacre of Britons, perpetrated by Nana Sahib, a ferocious Mahratta chieftain.

The honour of trampling the Mutiny out is due to the gallant Scottish soldier, who exchanged his more celebrated name of Colin Campbell for the title of Lord Clyde. Aided by Sir Hugh Rose, who marched across the peninsula, taking Jhansi and Gwalior, Sir Colin drew a fatal line round the mutineers, and contracting its limits caught them in the toils. The fall of **Barrilly** (May 7th, 1858) was the last important operation of the war.

The year 1858 was notable for a most important change in the government of India. By the passing of the India Bill the Company, which had directed the affairs of the great peninsula of the East since 1600, and had gradually found its few factories grow into an Empire vaster than the island, to which it was a mere appendage, ceased to exist. The government of India was transferred to the Queen, who transacts the business of the great colony by means of a Special Secretary of State.

PERSIA.

In 1502 the Tartar rule in Persia, which had been established by the conquests of Tamerlane, gave way to the Sufi dynasty, founded by a Turkoman named Ismael Shah.

The most distinguished of the Sufi line was **Abbas the Great** (1585-1628). Persia, previously to his accession, had suffered much from the assaults of the Usbek Turks, who had overrun some of the provinces—especially Khorassan. By a severe defeat near Herat, in 1597, the power of these marauders was much crippled. To a keen desire of forming alliances against Turkey with Western Europe, may be ascribed the hospitality which Abbas displayed towards the Shirleys, English knights who visited Persia. On the whole his wars were successful, the last battle of consequence in his reign being a defeat of Turks and Tartars between Sultanieh and Tebriz (1618).

Abbas looked with jealous eyes on the Portuguese settlement at Ormuz, an island in the entrance of the Persian Gulf. With the aid of ships from the English East India Company he reduced the place; but his allies derived no commercial benefits from their interference, as they had hoped to do. Ispahan was made the Persian capital during the reign of Abbas.

The Sufi dynasty terminated in 1736, when **Nadir 1736** Shah, the son of a maker of sheepskin coats, but who **A.D.** proudly styled himself "the son of the sword," dethroned Tamasp, the last of the line, and assumed the sovereignty.

Previous to his usurpation, Nadir had acquired great fame by delivering Persia from the conquering Afghans, who had oppressed the land for many years. He now completed his work of Afghan subjugation by the reduction of Candahar (1738). And, when the Emperor of Delhi persisted in sheltering the refugees, who fled from the sword of Nadir, he marched against that city of the Great Mogul, from which he carried off an incalculable amount of plunder in the shape of jewellery and gold.

Nadir's hatred of the Sheah sect—he was himself a Sunnee—led him to dislike the native Persians; and some of them accordingly, finding that their names were in a list of proscription, anticipated the Shah by entering his tent and murdering him (1747).

After the death of Nadir a time of anarchy ensued, during which Afghanistan became an independent state. In 1759, a chief of the Zend family became supreme, with the title of *Wakhal*—a dignity lower than that of King. Of the troubles that convulsed Persia, Russia was not slow to take advantage, and extended to Georgia a protection, which soon grew into possession. Turkey is another European State which has been engaged, during this century, in wars with Persia.

Herat, on the borders of Khorasan and Afghanistan, has long maintained its independence in spite of fierce assaults made on it by Persia with Russian aid. The most memorable of these was a siege (1837–38) of ten months, during which the Shah exerted all his strength in vain. The gallant defence of the place was mainly owing to the energy and skill of an English officer named Pottinger.

But in 1855 Persia again interfered with a disputed succession in Herat; upon which Britain, fully alive to the importance of the place as a key to India on the north-west, declared war. The bombardment of Bushire, and defeats at Koochab and elsewhere reduced the Orientals to submission and a complete acknowledgment of the independence of the stronghold of Khorasan.

CHINA.

During the progress of the many legendary dynasties, of which the history of China is full during the centuries before Christ, only one memorable name appears. It is that of Kong-foo-tse, which has been Latinized into **Confucius**. This philanthropic reformer, born in the kingdom of Loo, rose to be prime-minister, but was banished, owing to the jealousy of neighbouring sovereigns, to the kingdom of Chin, where he ended his days in poverty (about 478 B.C.) His writings, of which there are nine books, form the sacred literature of China.

The first monarch of the **Tsin** dynasty, uniting all the petty states north of the Kiang River under his government, caused all the records of the past, including the books of Confucius, to be burned (247 B.C.): and to him was also due the building of the Great Wall on the north to keep out the Tartars.

Under the **Han** dynasty, China acquired size, strength, and splendour (207 B.C.-220 A.D.); and the fame of the nation extended even to Rome, whence one of the Antonines sent presents of ivory to the reigning Emperor. A new dissolution
585 of the Empire was followed by a new union, when in
 A.D. 585 for the first time North and South were joined under one sceptre, the capital being fixed at Honan.

It is believed that some Nestorian Christians reached China about 640: there is a legend stating that foreigners with fair hair arrived in the land, while a monument, graven with a cross and a summary of the Christian law, has been discovered.

The Tartar invasions formed the great trouble of the Chinese Emperors in the Middle Ages. It happened that, whenever they called in external aid to repress their incursions, the allies turned the hired sword upon their employers. This was especially the case in the thirteenth century, when the Emperor of China, desirous to shake off the yoke of the Kin Tartars, called in the aid of Zenghis-Khan and his Moguls. The Kin were
1279 subdued; but so were the Chinese. In 1279 Kublai
 A.D. Khan completed the conquest of China by reducing the

province of Quang-tong, and overthrowing finally the dynasty of *Song*.

In ninety years the Moguls yielded to the native dynasty of **Ming** (1368); and these in turn gave way to the **Mantchoo** Tartars, who seized the throne in 1644.

During the reign of Queen Victoria Britain has been engaged in three wars with China: of these the result has been the opening to European trade and missionary influence of a land jealously sealed from time immemorial.

In 1839 a dispute about opium, which the Chinese rulers wanted to exclude, led to a war, in which the conquest of Chusan and a march upon Nankin forced the Celestials to submit. Britain acquired the Island of **Hong-Kong** by the treaty of Nankin (1842).

In 1856 the second war broke out, kindled by an outrage committed on the crew of the *Arrow* by Chinese police. Yeh, the Commissioner at Canton, refused reparation, upon which that city was bombarded and taken by the French and English troops. An expedition then forced its way up the Peiho to Tien-tsin, where was made a treaty opening five new ports to British trade.

In 1860 a treacherous fire, opened on our Envoy at the mouth of the Puiho, as he was proceeding to ascend that river in order to secure the ratification of the treaty just named, roused a third war, which was short and decisive, for a blow was struck at the capital. The capture of the Summer Palace and a threat of bombardment caused the surrender of Peking, which was evacuated only when it had been arranged that a British Envoy was to reside there, and that a strip of land on the Canton River—*Cowloon*—should be added to our possessions.

JAPAN.

Our very scanty knowledge of Japan, which has been till lately a country even more jealously sealed against European intrusion than China, dates from the adventurous travels of

Marco Polo, the Venetian, who in 1275, in conjunction with his brother visited China and ascertained the existence of Japan.

From the year 1188 the supreme power has been divided between a temporal ruler called Tycoon and an ecclesiastical chief styled Dairi.

The Portuguese and the Dutch were the first European nations that attempted a trade with these islands; but the former, both merchants and missionaries, were expelled in 1637, and the trade was narrowed to the latter, who with many jealous restrictions were permitted to have a factory on an island communicating by a gated bridge with the fort of Nagasaki.

Recently, in 1863, a refusal on the part of the Prince of Satsuma to afford reparation for the murder of a British subject, caused a British squadron to appear before Kagosima (August 15). The batteries of the Japanese opened a quick and precise fire upon the ships, which replied so effectually with shell as to silence the Japanese.

MODERN ASIATIC CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.
Sufi dynasty in Persia,	1502
Baber founds the Mogul Empire in India,	1525
Shah Abbas rules in Persia,	1585-1628
First English factory at Surat,	1613
Japan closed to all Europeans except the Dutch,	1637
Chinese throne seized by the Mantchoo Tartars,	1644
Death of Aurungzebe (India),	1707
Nadir Shah rules Persia,	1736-47
Clive takes Arcot (India),	1751
Battle of Plassey,	1757
French Empire in India overthrown,	1761
Siege of Seringapatam and fall of Mysore,	1799
Battle of Assaye (India),	1803
Ceylon annexed,	1815
Afghan War,	1839-42
First Chinese War, (Hong-Kong gained),	1839-42
Seikh Wars (Punjaub conquered),	1846-49
Second Chinese War,	1856-58
The Indian Mutiny,	1857
India made a Crown Colony,	1858

NORTH AMERICA.

Discovery and Colonization.—On the 12th of October 1492, Christopher Columbus, a sailor of Genoa, having started from Palos in Andalusia with three Spanish ships, granted for the expedition by Isabella of Castile, caught sight of San Salvador, one of the Bahama Islands. Five years later (1497) Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian, sailing from Bristol in England, discovered Labrador and Newfoundland. These voyages rank with that of Vasco da Gama in importance: for they opened to European conquest and commerce a New World in the West; as he, by doubling the Cape of Good Hope, found an ocean-path to India and the East. In 1517 Cordova discovered the peninsula of Yucatan. Jacques Cartier, of St. Malo in France, sailed up the River St. Lawrence, which he entered on the day in 1535 consecrated to that saint; but it was not until 1608 that Champlain established a French colony on the site of Quebec.

The countries of North America, in the order of their historical importance, are the United States; British America, especially Canada; Mexico; the West Indian Islands; and the Republics of Central America.

THE UNITED STATES.

Foundation of States.—Between 1585 and 1732 thirteen British colonies, which formed the original Thirteen States of the Union, were founded along the North American shore. A list of them is subjoined:—

1. *North Carolina* was first colonized in 1585 by settlers sent out by Sir Walter Raleigh; but it was not permanently occupied until 1650, and did not receive its name, given in honour of Charles II., until after the Restoration.

2. *Virginia*, so called in honour of Queen Elizabeth, who disclaimed to marry, received its white population in 1607.

3. A number of English Puritans, sailing from Delft in the *Mayflower*, landed at a port which they named Plymouth, and

thus founded, in 1620, the State of *Massachusetts*. These first colonists are called in America the *Pilgrim Fathers*.

4. The first settlement of *New Hampshire* dates from 1623; but contests with the Indians retarded its advancement for many years.

5. *Maryland*, so called from the wife of Charles I., was colonized in 1634 by Lord Baltimore, who selected it as an asylum for persecuted Roman Catholics.

6. *Rhode Island* was founded in 1636, by a Puritan preacher, named Roger Williams, who incurred persecution for maintaining the doctrine of unlimited toleration.

7. *Connecticut* was a branch from *Massachusetts*, founded in 1635.

8. *New York* was not acquired by England until 1664, when it changed its original name of New Amsterdam, in compliment to the King's brother, James Duke of York. It was previously a Dutch colony on the river discovered by and named after Henry Hudson.

9. *New Jersey*, colonized in turn by Danes, Swedes, and Dutch, passed under British rule in 1664. It was afterwards purchased by a Quaker company.

10. *Delaware* had a similar history. It took its name from Lord Delaware, governor of Virginia.

11. *South Carolina* originated in the foundation of Charleston in 1680.

12. *Pennsylvania*, acquired by Charles II. from Holland, was granted to William Penn in 1681. This eminent Quaker purchased land from the Indians, and made regulations so wise and liberal as to draw many settlers to the colony. The French made Fort Duquesne (Pittsburg) a stronghold in the chain of fortresses they strove to build between Canada and the Gulf of Mexico.

13. *Georgia* was formed in 1732 by General Oglethorpe, as an asylum for debtors and religious refugees.

French and English.—When the existence of the great river Mississippi was discovered, the French hastened to build at its

month, the city of New Orleans, as the nucleus of a territory which was called *Louisiana*. The Mississippi Scheme, projected by John Law, drew much attention to the place; but after the collapse of that great imposture the French crown resumed the land, which had been assigned to the company. The British Colonies, lying between two sets of French possessions, represented by Louisiana and Canada, needed to be alert, active, and self-reliant; for the French treacherously allied themselves with the Indians, whom they encouraged to assail the outlying British settlers with tomahawk and scalping-knife. The claim, most distasteful to Britain, was that advanced by the French, when they sought to line the Ohio and the Mississippi with fortresses, connecting their colonies and enclosing the British with a curve, out of which harm was sure to issue. This led to a *Colonial War* between France and Britain. A volunteer armament, manned by New England fishermen, with the aid of an English fleet, took Louisburg in Cape Breton Island (1745). The expeditions of 1755 against the French forts were less successful. General Braddock was defeated at Fort Duquesne and afterwards killed; but the British successes in Canada, afterwards to be described, destroyed the French Empire in America.

War of Independence.—In 1765, during the reign of George III., the Ministry of Lord Grenville imposed a *Stamp Tax* on American documents; and, though this was afterwards repealed, the right to tax the American colonies was insisted on by Britain. The colonists maintained their right to be exempted, because they had no representatives in the British Parliament.

When Lord North tried to impose a tax on tea, some citizens of Boston boarded the vessels and emptied the chests of tea into the harbour; a piece of audacity which the 1773 British Government punished by closing the port of A.D. Boston.

This daring defiance on the part of Massachusetts was confirmed by a Congress of all the States, except Georgia, which met at Philadelphia (1774) and addressed a *Declaration of Rights* to the King.

The war broke out in 1775 at **Lexington**. Some British troops, sent from Boston to seize arms at Concord, were attacked by the American riflemen, and suffered considerable loss. Through the supineness of General Gage, the Americans were permitted to occupy **Bunker's Hill** opposite Boston, one night; and in the attack upon their position, the English lost so many men that their victory may well be regarded as doubtful.

The great name of the war now begins to brighten on the page of history. **George Washington**, a Virginian gentleman, now aged forty-three, took the command of the American forces, which he proceeded to organize and drill. The wretched state of affairs may be judged from the fact that the supply of gunpowder then on hand would not have made ten cartridges for each man. He blockaded **Howe** in Boston; and then, having made himself master of **Dorchester Height**, he compelled the English general to abandon the city. **Howe** then retreated to **Halifax**, while **Washington** went to **New York**.

The insurgents then issued their *Declaration of Independence*, drawn up by **Jefferson**. Before the close of the summer, **1776** the British had forced **Washington** to evacuate **New A.D. York**, and fall back beyond the **Delaware**.

At first, when the campaign of 1777 opened tardily, General **Howe** defeated the Americans at the **Brandywine River**; and, as a consequence of the victory, Lord **Cornwallis** occupied **Philadelphia**. But disaster tarnished the British arms later in the year, when **Burgoyne**, who had marched from **Canada** to the **Hudson** in the hope of being reinforced from **New York**, was surrounded at **Saratoga**, and compelled to surrender (Oct. 16, 1777).

The ensuing winter was fatal to the discipline of **Howe's** army, which gave way to the wildest excesses in **Philadelphia**; and at the distance of a few miles the soldiers of **Washington** were starving at **Valley Forge**. The operations of 1778 were comparatively unimportant. The English abandoned **Philadelphia**, and proceeded to **New York**, round which **Washington** drew a line of cantonments.

In 1779 the principal events of the war were three : a British movement on Virginia ; the capture by Clinton, Howe's successor, of two strongholds on the Hudson ; and an unsuccessful attempt on Charleston by the Americans, who had begun in the previous year to receive aid from France.

Sir Henry Clinton took Charleston in 1780. A British officer, Major André, having been appointed to conduct a secret negotiation with Arnold, a traitor in the American camp, was arrested, and, by Washington's orders, was hanged as a spy.

The eighth campaign (1781) brought the war to an end. Its most important event was the surrender of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown. This general marched into Vir- 1781
ginia ; but was hemmed in by a sudden movement A.D.
of Washington and his French allies. No aid came to relieve Cornwallis, who made one wild attempt to seize the horses of the French cavalry, and on its failure found that he had no hope but in surrender.

The war was formally terminated in 1783, when Britain acknowledged the independence of the Thirteen States.

Constitution.—The task of framing a Constitution then devolved upon the Congress of the infant Republic. Assembling at Philadelphia in 1787, the delegates constituted two Chambers—a *House of Representatives*, elected by the people in proportion to the amount of population in a State ; and a *Senate*. A *President*, whose office lasted for four years but might be renewed, was to act as head of affairs. Taxation was to rest with the legislature. Rhode Island and North Carolina were tardy in adopting this constitution ; but when they found the rest of the States resolved to carry out its provisions, they yielded in 1790. George Washington was unanimously chosen the first President of the Republic.

George Washington (1789-97) entered upon his duties as President with the same methodical system as had characterized him when in command of the army. His first duty was to organize the various departments of the State, and make himself thoroughly acquainted with all the details of their working ; his

next, to secure the position of the States as a power among the nations of the world. The establishment of a national bank and the development of a militia system were among the first Acts of Congress. These things were not done quite peacefully; for there were already two great factions in the state—the Democrats, headed by Jefferson; and the Federalist party, under Hamilton. In 1793 Washington was reelected to the Presidency.

The party struggles still continued to wax in bitterness; notwithstanding which an Act was passed (1793), proclaiming neutrality in the affairs of Europe. And in the following year, in spite of the efforts of the Democrats, a commercial treaty with Great Britain was ratified and signed. Washington met the clamour of his opponents firmly, declined to produce the papers of negotiation, and showed so bold a front that his assailants ceased opposition.

The Federalist faction succeeded in securing the Presidency for one of themselves, **John Adams** (1797–1801), who had been a leader in the preparation of the *Declaration of Independence*, and had acted as Vice-President during Washington's administration. After an uneventful tenure of office, he was beaten at the next election by

Thomas Jefferson (1801–9), a determined opponent of the Federalists, and a man already celebrated as the author of the Declaration of 1776. The principal event of his administration was the acquisition by purchase from France of an immense tract of country called Louisiana, but really including not only that

State but all the territory between the Mississippi and
1803 the Rocky Mountains. The importance of this acquisition rested on the command which it gave the Americans of the traffic upon the greatest water-road in their country. In 1805 Jefferson received the honour of reelection.

James Madison (1809–17) was President twice. During his administration a second war with England arose. There had always been an anti-English party, which in 1794, but for the strong hand of Washington, would have begun war instead of making a treaty. Under Madison, who was a Democrat, this hostile feeling ripened into war.

When Napoleon issued his Berlin Decrees, and Britain retaliated by her Orders in Council, America took umbrage at the latter; but Britain insisted on her right to search American vessels for British seamen. A collision between the *Leopard*, an English ship of war, and the *Chesapeake*, an American frigate (1807), brought matters to the verge of a rupture, but it was not until 1812 that war was actually declared. Before that event America, in obedience to Bonaparte's Milan Decree, re- 1812
fused to permit the British to search their vessels, and A.D.
about their ports against the British flag. An encounter between the American ship *President* and the English sloop *Little Belt* hastened the crisis.

Second War with Britain.—A month after the declaration of war (1812) the American General Hull, with a force of 2500 men, crossed the Detroit frontier into Canada; but soon fell back on the Detroit fortress, where the brave General Brock forced him to surrender. The Americans made another invasion at *Queenston*, on the Niagara River, but they were repulsed. Brock, however, was shot in the act of leading a charge.

The war went on vigorously by sea. Commodore Rodgers, looking out for our sugar-ships from the West Indies, met the English frigate *Hedulara*, which fought the huge *President* and finally escaped. In another naval duel the British ship *Guerrière*, though crazy and deficient in ammunition, maintained a three hours' fight with the U. S. frigate *Constitution*, not striking her flag until she became a useless wreck. With a similar result, the *Jawa* fought the *Constitution*.

In the following year (1813) the Americans renewed their attempts in Canada, collecting boats upon Lakes Erie and Ontario. They took York and obtained a footing in Dearborn; but were afterwards repulsed both at Niagara and Detroit. The Commander-in-chief in Canada, Sir George Prevost, was unhappily a most incompetent man, whose blunders were so glaring that it is a marvel the American successes were not greater.

The well-known encounter between the English frigate *Shannon* and the American frigate *Chesapeake* took place off Boston (June

1st, 1813): it lasted only a quarter of an hour, and ended in victory for the British.

In 1814 the British troops, penetrating to Washington, burned the public buildings in that city; but at New Orleans the Americans gained the upper hand next Christmas, for they repulsed every assault of the English troops. The Treaty of Ghent (1814) closed the war.

Under the Presidency of **James Monroe** (1817-25), who was twice elected to that dignity, the most important event in the history of the States was the cession of **Florida** in 1821. This old colony of Spain was taken possession of in that year by General Jackson.

After **John Quincy Adams** (1825-29) — the democratic **Andrew Jackson** (1829-37)—**Van Buren** (1837-41)—and **Tyler** (1841-45), had held the presidential chair in succession, its occupancy devolved upon **James Knox Polk** (1845-49).

Mexican War.—A spirit of revolt from Mexico, long fermenting among the inhabitants of Texas, burst into open war in 1835; and the Texans, with aid from the States, defeated Santa Anna, the Mexican general, at Jacinto. . To obtain his release from captivity, Santa Anna signed a document acknowledging the independence of Texas. But not until 1845 was the State admitted into the Union. This kindled a war with Mexico. During the summer of 1846 California was conquered; in 1847 Vera Cruz surrendered; and in the same year an American army entered the city of Mexico. The war, thus brought to an end, resulted in the cession to the United States of California, Utah, and New Mexico (1848). The *Oregon Treaty*, concluded with Great Britain, had previously added some territory on that river to the States, which now claimed two great ocean sea-bords, enclosing an enormous tract of rich unoccupied land.

The interest of United States history derives a tragic tinge from the events of the recent war.

Recent American Civil War.—A hostile feeling between the Northern and the Southern States of the Union was fostered into actual war by several causes, of which the greatest was their dis-

agreement of opinion upon the question of negro slavery. The planters of the South regarded it as a necessary condition of their existence, while the manufacturers and commercial men of the North cried loudly for its abolition.

The appointment of **Abraham Lincoln** as President hurried on the crisis. Not a single Southern State had voted for him.

South Carolina took the initiative by seceding from the Union on the 20th of December 1860; and before the end of the succeeding February, the following States had joined the ranks of **Secession**:—**Mississippi**, **Alabama**, **Florida**, **Georgia**, **Louisiana**, and **Texas**. Meeting at **Montgomery**, they declared their independence (February 9, 1861) under the name of the Confederate States, and appointed a rival President in the person of **Jefferson Davis**. **Virginia**, **Arkansas**, **Tennessee**, and **North Carolina** afterwards seceded from the Union.

The first shot in the desolating civil war that ensued—in which the Northern troops, called **Federals**, were opposed to the Southern, called **Confederates**—was fired at **Fort Sumpter** in **Charleston** harbour. The Federal Government sent some ships to relieve this fortress; but General **Beau-** April 12, regard, anticipating their arrival, opened a fire, which 1861 forced the garrison to surrender.

The Confederate Government soon afterwards removed the seat of their power from **Montgomery** to **Richmond** in **Virginia**, which was henceforth their capital.

On the 21st of July 1861, the armies came into collision in their first battle on the banks of a stream called **Bull's Run**, about twenty miles south-west of **Washington**. At first the Federal troops were successful; but the arrival of reinforcements, which fired from the woods on their flank, caused them to retreat. The panic spread; and the whole Federal force, officers and men, fled in a huddled mass towards **Centreville**.

Some months later, an expedition under General **Sherman** reduced the forts of **Port Royal** in **South Carolina**, taking forty pieces of cannon.

A notice of the **Trent** affair, which endangered the neutrality

that Great Britain had proclaimed her intention to maintain, has been already given. It ended peacefully.

Second Campaign, 1862.—A series of brilliant successes crowned the Federal arms during the first half of this year. Their generals captured the island of Roanoke, on the coast of North Carolina; Fort Henry at the junction of the Ohio and the Tennessee; Fort Donnelson on Cumberland River; and Island No. 10 on the Mississippi. But their greatest exploit was the taking of **New Orleans** (April 24th). In spite of forts, gun-boats, and a barrier of booms and chains across the river, the Federal fleet forced its way up to the city, which, deprived of its defences, surrendered.

A notable feature of this struggle was the introduction into naval warfare of iron-clad turret-ships of enormous strength.

Darting out of Norfolk, the *Merrimac*, or *Virginia* as the Confederates had renamed her, after sheathing her sides in plates of railway iron, sank or otherwise destroyed several wooden ships of a Federal squadron. On the next day (March 8) a Federal iron-clad, the *Monitor*, engaged the *Merrimac* off the mouth of the James River; but the duel was indecisive.

The Federals had now gathered the great army of the Potomac under General M'Clellan, for the purpose of crushing the rebellion at once.

Moving his men from the Potomac to the peninsula between the York and the James rivers, M'Clellan ascended the former, and tried to approach Richmond, upon which the Confederates fell back. But the Confederates had noble generals, such as Lee and "Stonewall" Jackson, by whose skill the great Federal plan was utterly baffled. Stuart, with the Confederate cavalry, made a successful dash on the Federal camp; and there was soon no course for the army of M'Clellan but retreat. Fortunately their ships were at hand in the James River to carry them to Aquia Creek on the Potomac.

Pope, a Federal general, fought with General Lee at Cedar Mountain near the Rapidan; but his retreat towards Washington was harassed by Jackson and Stuart. During its progress a second battle of Bull's Run, disastrous to the Federals, was fought.

After a drawn battle at Antietam in Maryland between Lee and McClellan, the former recrossed the Potomac. McClellan was soon afterwards superseded by Burnside.

On the 23rd of September Abraham Lincoln issued a proclamation, proposing the abolition of slavery in all the rebel States.

Third Campaign, 1863.—On the 1st of January 1863 this threat was put in execution.

Two attacks of Federal iron-clads upon Charleston were baffled by the extraordinary strength of the defences; and in August Fort Sumpter was again unsuccessfully bombarded.

But one of the most striking circumstances of the campaign was the siege and surrender of **Vicksburg** on the Mississippi to the Federals. Forcing his way up the great river in April, Commodore Farragut opened fire on the place, which was afterwards blockaded by Grant. After forty-eight days of defence, during which the inhabitants were reduced to feed on mules and dogs, the stronghold surrendered.

In May a Federal army, strongly intrenched at **Chancellorsville**, in a country of dense wood, was outflanked by "Stonewall" Jackson, who attacked it in the rear, while the cannon of Lee thundered in front. Night alone saved the Federal force from annihilation. The Confederate victory was saddened by the death of General Jackson, who was struck down by the random bullets of his own men (May 2).

In June Lee crossed the Potomac into Maryland, thus invading the territory of the North, where unusual levies were making. Led by Meade, the Federals met the invading force at **Gettysburg** in Pennsylvania; and on the 3rd of July fought so fiercely that the Confederates, after suffering great loss, retreated and recrossed the Potomac.

By the surrender of a Confederate force that guarded Cumberland Gap, the Federals made their way into Tennessee, where, however, they were signally defeated at **Chickamauga** (Sept. 20) by the Confederate General Bragg. Later in the year (Nov. 25) Grant, with Sherman under his command, worsted the Confederates at **Chattanooga**.

Fourth Campaign, 1864.—This campaign did not open till April. General Grant led a great army towards **Richmond**, near which was fought, at Chancellorsville and elsewhere, a series of most desperate battles, in which the Federals were worsted. Nor had they more success when, transferring his army to the southern bank of the James River, Grant directed an attack against Petersburg.

On the 19th of June a Federal ship, the *Kearsage*, defended with iron chains hanging over the bulwarks, engaged with the noted Confederate cruiser *Alabama*, about nine miles from Cherbourg, and in an hour the latter was sinking.

A Confederate plundering raid in July brought the war within actual sight of the citizens of Washington.

From Virginia, where the Federals were twice repulsed at Petersburg, the scene of war shifted to Georgia and Tennessee. **Atalanta**, the capital of Georgia, was fiercely contended for; but at length (Sept. 3) it was evacuated by the Confederates, after General Sherman had cut off their means of supply.

In the Shenandoah Valley the Federals under Sheridan defeated the Confederates under Early at Winchester, and also at Fisher Hill.

One of the boldest and most striking movements of the war was a march by General Sherman from Atalanta to Savannah, a distance of ninety-three miles, which he accomplished in twenty-three days. Unable to maintain his position in Atalanta, for Hood had cut off his line of supplies, he resolved to push for the sea; and accordingly pretended an attack on Macon to draw off the Confederates. On his arrival at **Savannah**, he besieged the city, which yielded (Dec. 21). A bombardment of Fort Fisher at the entrance of Wilmington Harbour by the Federals was at first unsuccessful.

Fifth Campaign, 1865.—After a month's rest at Savannah, Sherman set out upon a northward expedition. Trees were felled and bridges burned, to obstruct his way; but his pioneers surmounted all difficulties. He entered **Columbia**, to find the streets piled with burning cotton, tufts of which were blowing

like snow in the high wind. The city was nearly all burned by the fire lit by departing Confederates.

Sherman pursued his victorious march, by Fayetteville and Goldsboro', towards Richmond, cutting off the inland lines of communication held by the Confederates on the sea-board.

Meanwhile Fort Fisher had fallen (January 15) before the assaults of Federal Admiral Porter; an event which led to the speedy stratification of Wilmington by the Confederates.

During the night of the 17th February the Confederates evacuated Charleston, leaving 200 cannon behind.

The end now came rapidly on. After a severe final struggle at Petersburg between the Confederates under Lee, and the Federals under Grant, the former evacuated Richmond, April 3, thus virtually acknowledging themselves defeated, in the 1865 long and bloody contest. Six days later, Lee and his A.D. army surrendered to Grant.

Then occurred one of those strange sad acts of blind revenge, too many of which stain the pages of history.

While sitting with his wife in his private box at Ford's Theatre in Washington, Abraham Lincoln was shot through the head by a man, who came in at the unguarded door. The assassin, an actor named Wilkes Booth, sprang on the stage with the cry, "*Sic semper tyrannis*," and escaped. But he was pursued; captured in a barn at Bowling Green in Carolina County, Virginia; and shot, while the building was burning. His accomplices were afterwards hanged.

On the night of Lincoln's murder a savage attempt was made on the life of Mr. Secretary Seward, who was lying in bed with a broken arm.

When Sherman at Goldsboro' heard of the Federal success at Richmond, he turned to pursue General Johnston, who occupied a position covering Raleigh. The Confederate army soon made an unconditional surrender; and on the 10th of May Jefferson Davis, President of the South, was made prisoner by a body of horse at Irwinville in Georgia. After a lengthened imprisonment, he has recently been released.

The great result of this bloody war was the complete abolition of Negro Slavery in America. Andrew Johnson, the new President, in his Message, as the annual statement to Congress is called, endeavoured, instead of establishing military government in the seceded but now conquered States, to bind them to the Union by conciliation. The relations between President Johnson and certain leading members of the State have been far from peaceful; and, in the exercise of the extreme power of pronouncing a *veto* upon Bills of which he disapproved, he has incurred much anger, and has been threatened with impeachment.

A most important event in the histories of both America and Europe was the successful completion of the Atlantic July, **Telegraph Cable**, between Valentia in Ireland and Trinity 1865 Bay in Newfoundland. In September, by a series of A.D. gigantic grappling operations the broken cable of 1865 was recovered, and, being spliced, was laid down most successfully.

BRITISH AMERICA.

The British possessions in North America include Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island and Cape Breton, Newfoundland, the Hudson's Bay Territory, and British Columbia with Vancouver's Island.

Newfoundland, discovered in 1497 by the Cabots, was colonized in 1583 by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a daring Elizabethan explorer, who lost his life in a storm. As Avalon it was filled with Roman Catholic emigrants under the auspices of Sir George Calvert. The French threatened it in Queen Anne's reign; but it was secured to Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht.

Nova Scotia, first known as part of the French settlement of Acadie, also became a British possession by the provisions of the Treaty of Utrecht. New Brunswick was a part of this colony until after the close of the American War.

Prince Edward's Island and Cape Breton fell into the hands of the British, when a volunteer force from Boston sailed to the latter and attacked the city of Louisburg successfully.

Canada is the most important of our North American Colonies. Its history dates from the voyage of Jacques Cartier, who sailed up the St. Lawrence in 1535. A French fur-trading station soon sprang up at the mouth of the Saguenay. An enterprising naval officer named Champlain then assumed the position of governor; and the colony was troubled long with contests between the French and their neighbours, whether *Troquois* Indians or New England settlers.

The spirit of the British, always at this period ready on the least provocation to kindle into hostility against the French, took fire at the proceedings of Marquis Duquesne, who built a chain of forts along the Ohio in order to join the French colonies on the St. Lawrence to those at the mouth of the Mississippi. The attacks of the British upon this line were at first unsuccessful; but after 1758 a brilliant change occurred. General Wolfe, planting cannon on Point Levi, and landing his troops on Orleans Island, began the siege of Quebec. After nearly two months of useless assault, a path was discovered, leading up the precipice on which the Plain of Abraham lies; and British soldiers, having climbed by 1759
A.D. sight to this position above the city, fought a battle next day, in which Montcalm and the French were defeated. This victory gave Canada to Britain.

During the American War of Independence the insurgents attacked Canada (1775). Montgomery, leading an army from Lake Champlain, occupied Montreal, and then, being reinforced by Arnold, assailed Quebec. But the besiegers retreated after four months of blockade.

In 1791 a *Constitutional Act* was passed, dividing the two Canadas. The troubles that have arisen in the colony have been mainly owing to the discontent of the anti-French population, some of whom not even the *Act of Quebec* (1774), appointing the French laws as the basis of all property transactions, could satisfy.

In 1837-8 there was rebellion in Canada. Its beginning at Montreal under Papineau was soon crushed. Mackenzie in Upper Canada vainly tried to seize Toronto; but was defeated

by Colonel M'Nab. A second outbreak under Dr. Nelson was quelled by Sir John Colborne.

In 1840 the Canadas were reunited under a single constitution; and a valuable treaty between the States and Britain—the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854—opened the navigation of the St. Lawrence and its canals to the States, while it secured for Canada the free use of Lake Michigan for commerce.

The seat of government was transferred in 1866 from Montreal to Ottawa. During the same year there was an unsuccessful invasion of Canada by the Fenians of America, who crossed the Niagara River at Fort Erie, but were easily defeated.

MEXICO.

Mexico, which derived its name from *Mexitli*, the Aztec god of war, rose under that ancient American tribe to considerable splendour. The Aztecs built cities whose ruins still strike with awe the traveller who penetrates the forests that overgrow them: they had their orators and poets, as well as their architects and sculptors.

Cordova was the discoverer of Mexico; but Cortez was its conqueror. Landing on the shore of the Gulf (1518) he founded, near the site of Vera Cruz, the town of Villarica; and, before he proceeded into the heart of the country, he broke his ships up, in order that his companions might have no hope but in vigorous fighting. Montezuma, the emperor of the Aztecs, admitted the Spaniards to his capital—a kindness which Cortez repaid by detaining him in forcible custody, until he should acknowledge himself a vassal of Spain. In a riot Montezuma was afterwards slain, and a victory over the Aztecs at *Otumba*, coupled with a successful siege of Mexico (1521), completed the reduction of the country.

Mexico continued to be a Spanish possession for three centuries (1520–1820). Numerous Spaniards emigrated thither; and their descendants, Creoles, born in Mexico, felt bitterly towards the mother-land, when it became the policy to exclude

from the offices of State, including commissions in the army, any but native Spaniards. The hostility, however, of the *Mestizos*, half-bloods between Spanish and Indian, kept the Creoles from very decided action.

When the Peninsular War began to trouble Spain, Mexico felt the stirrings of desire for independence. In 1810 *Hidalgo*, parish priest of Dolores, headed a rebellion of *Mestizos* against the Government, until he was taken prisoner and shot. *Morelos*, another priest, was more successful, for he succeeded in establishing a Junta or Central Government (1813); however, he met with the same fate. The Viceroy crushed the various chiefs who sprang up, and, ere the restoration of tranquillity, caused to perish *Xavier Mina*, a Spanish guerilla, who had come to restore the cause of insurrection.

Taking advantage of the troubles of 1820 in Spain, Iturbide proposed a plan by which Mexico was to have a resident sovereign, either the King of Spain or his brother. This the Viceroy accepted conditionally, upon the reception of the royal assent; and Iturbide took possession of the capital. He then proclaimed himself Emperor, with the title of Augustus I. (1822); but, after quarrelling with the Congress and the army, he abdicated and sought safety in Europe. Venturing to return in 1824, he was arrested at Padilla, and shot.

The army, now in the ascendant, modelled the government into the form of a Federal Republic, after the fashion of the government of the United States. Then began a period of ceaseless intrigue and revolution among various military generals, who struggled for the supreme power. General Santa Anna, the most prominent of these, was continually in the extremes of success and adversity—one month sitting in the presidential chair, armed with almost despotic power—the next a refugee and exile. He happened to be President in 1846, when General Taylor invaded Mexico with the United States army, and though with superior forces, retired before the invader, after a two days' battle; thus permitting the loss of much Mexican territory.

In 1862 the French Emperor, resolving to interfere in the

affairs of Mexico, sent General Forey thither with an army. The city of *Puebla*, with some difficulty, fell before the invaders (May 18, 1863); and Juarez then evacuated Mexico, which was occupied by the French.

Mexico, with the title of Emperor, was then offered to the Archduke Maximilian, a brother of the Emperor of Austria; and he accepted the dignity in 1864. The tragedy which followed is still fresh in the public mind. Driven from his throne by an insurrectionary movement of the Republican party, headed by Juarez, the Emperor Maximilian, with two of his devoted generals, was made captive, and shot at Queretaro on the 19th of June, 1867.

NORTH AMERICAN CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.
Columbus discovers the West Indies,	1492
Cabot discovers the mainland of America,	1497
Cortova discovers Mexico,	1517
Mexico conquered by Cortez,	1521
Carter explores the St. Lawrence,	1605
North Carolina colonized,	1605
Jamaica taken by Britain,	1655
Georgia colonized, completing the Thirteen States,	1732
Volunteers from Boston take Louisburg,	1746
Conquest of Canada,	1759
Siege of Havana by the British,	1762
Stamp Act issued,	1765
Tea-riot at Boston,	1773
Outbreak of American War,	1775
Declaration of Independence,	1776
Acknowledged by Great Britain,	1783
Constitution of United States formed,	1789
Negro Empire established in Hayti,	1791
Second War between United States and Britain	1812-14
Mexico shakes off the Spanish yoke,	1821
Central America shakes off the Spanish yoke,	1823
War of Mexico with United States,	1846-48
Civil War in United States,	1861-65
French expedition to Mexico,	1862
Maximilian of Austria made Emperor of Mexico,	1864
Atlantic Cable successfully laid,	1866
Federal Union of British provinces,	1869
Maximilian shot at Queretaro,	1867

CENTRAL AMERICA.

While the Spaniards held an empire in America, the greater part of the isthmus formed the Kingdom of **Guatemala**—a region where, deep in the tangled tropical forest, were massive ruined Aztec cities, displaying wonderful skill in architecture and mechanics. After the revolution of 1821 this was attached for a time to the Mexican Kingdom of Iturbide; but his fall left it free. Then (1823) the four States of Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and San Salvador formed a federal union under the name *United States of Central America*. The union did not endure long; and the various States became independent republics—Costa Rica forming a fifth.

A district called **Honduras**, on the eastern edge of Yucatan, belongs to Britain. Columbus discovered it in 1502; but the British occupied it, and after much delay on the part of Spain, it was ceded by treaty in 1763. The story of the **Darien** colony, mentioned in the reign of William III., belongs to the history of Central America as well as to that of England.

The *Mazateco Kingdom* is an independent Indian State under British protection. A proposal to join the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by a route passing up the San Juan River and through Lake Nicaragua, led to a settlement, chiefly American, at the mouth of the river under the name of Greytown. It was bombarded by an American ship in 1854.

THE WEST INDIES.

Discovery.—The first part of America seen by Columbus in 1492 was the low green shore of Guanahani, or San Salvador, one of the *Bahamas*. Most of the islands were afterwards discovered and explored by him; in consequence of which the Spaniards came to possess and to claim exclusive right to the islands of this archipelago. They colonised all the larger islands, but left the smaller ones to be occupied by pirates called *Buccanniers*, from whom the colonies suffered much.

Cuba, the largest of the West Indian group, still belongs to Spain, though the United States have cast a covetous eye upon it more than once. Its position gives it a marked control over the trade in those regions.

When William Pitt was minister, he proposed to strike at Spain through her colonies, especially Havannah and Manilla; and Pitt's successors were forced to carry out the scheme. This led to an expedition against **Havannah** (1762). A strong force under Lord Albemarle and Admiral Pococke attacked Fort Moro, which was considered impregnable. After a fierce struggle with the bayonet the place was carried, the British flag being borne in triumph over the body of the governor, who died in the breach. The city yielded a fortnight later (August 13, 1762). Some time afterwards Manilla was captured by Colonel Draper; but both of these conquests were restored by Britain to Spain in the treaty of 1763.

Puerto Rico, also a Spanish island, was attacked unsuccessfully by Sir Francis Drake; and later, in 1791 and 1799, by British forces under Sir Ralph Abercromby and Sir Henry Harvey.

Jamaica, the chief British possession of the West Indian group, was colonized in 1509 by the Spaniards, who turned its fertile soil to account by raising cotton and sugar, by means first of Indian and then of Negro labour. It was taken by Britain in 1655. Cromwell, anxious to strike a blow at Spain through Hispaniola, despatched Admiral Penn and General Venables to the West Indies at the head of a fleet and army. They failed in the direct object of their voyage, but achieved the conquest of Jamaica; for which, instead of thanks, they got imprisonment.

The island was kept in agitation by the Maroons, a race of half-bloods, who inhabited the mountains of the centre; the Buccaneers, who swept the adjacent seas; and the Negroes, who rose periodically in revolt against their taskmasters. While the battle of Abolition was proceeding in England, a fever of agitation pervaded Jamaica; but in 1834 the slaves were transformed into apprentices, who were bound to serve their former owners for a term of years.

Recently (1865) a Negro insurrection convulsed Jamaica. On the 7th of October at **Morant Bay** the blacks rose and killed many persons before means could be taken to protect those in positions of danger. It happened that **Eyre**, an intrepid Australian explorer, was then governor of the island; and without wasting time, he dealt stern measures of retribution, which had the effect of crushing this incipient rebellion. **William Gordon**, a coloured member of Assembly, was arrested on a charge of secretly fomenting the insurrection, and after a military trial he was executed. **Paul Bogle**, the leader of the murderous blacks, was hanged. A cry against **Eyre** for undue severity, especially in the former case, arose in England; but public opinion has been much divided upon this question.

The second in size of our West Indian islands is **Trinidad**, which had been occupied by Spaniards previous to **Raleigh's** visit in 1595. The **Dons** held it until 1797, when **Admiral Harvey** and **General Abercromby** took it for Great Britain.

Hayti, or **Hispaniola**, was colonized, as its second name indicates, by Spaniards, after its discovery by **Columbus**. In 1697 the French, who had made friends with the **Buccaneers** of **Tortuga**, wrested from Spain the western and more fertile part of the island.

The agitations of the French Revolution extended even to this distant island. Rising under **Toussaint L'Ouverture**, the negroes, who could not reconcile the opinions of their French masters, proclaiming liberty and equality to all, with the practice and maintenance of negro slavery, proclaimed (1794) the emancipation of all slaves. This chieftain, born at **Breda** on the island, had passed through various subordinate positions, such as cattle-keeper and coachman, before he came to be an overseer of slaves,—the position in which the Revolution found him. He protested earnestly against the massacres, with which the rising had been accompanied. Taking advantage of the struggle between France and Spain for the possession of this most fertile of the Antilles, the negro chief threw his power into the scale with the former, and having released **Laveaux** from arrest, was made a General of

Division. In this position he conquered a large part of the island for France, and organized a well-drilled negro army. He afterwards attained the position of Commander-in-chief—an office in which he was placed in hostile collision with General Hedouville, the French Commissioner. Ultimately, when Bonaparte assumed supreme power in France, Toussaint imitated the example in Hayti (1801). Napoleon sent an expedition against him; and after a time, owing to the defection of his *quasi* friends, he proposed to make terms. Treacherously arrested by the French, this greatest of the negroes was carried over the Atlantic to a prison near Besançon, where he died after ten months' captivity (1803).

Desalines and Christophe in succession assumed the crown, but perished, the latter by his own hand; and after many troubled years, the island became an independent Republic in 1822, with Boyer as President. In 1844 changes occurred, which led to the establishment of the negro **Empire of Hayti** in the western part of the island, and in the east the **Republic of St. Domingo**, consisting chiefly of mulattoes.

The principal remaining European powers that hold islands of the West Indian group are France, which acquired *Guadeloupe* and *Martinique* finally in 1814, though both islands had been more than once in possession of Britain; the Dutch, who hold St. Eustace, Curaçoa, and other islands; and Sweden, which possesses St. Bartholomew. Denmark has very recently sold St. Thomas and St. John to the United States.

SOUTH AMERICA.

The conquest of South America for Spain was achieved in 1533 by **Francisco Pizarro**, who rose from the position of a swine-herd. Taking advantage of a dispute between two brothers for the throne of Peru, he invaded that country, dazzled with visions of gold and jewels. Atahualpa, then Inca of Peru, was seized by the invader, who afterwards took Cuzco and founded

Lima. Pizarro was slain in 1541 by conspirators, who burst in upon him during his slights.

With the exception of Brazil, of which Portugal took possession after its discovery, all of South America worth owning belonged to Spain for nearly three centuries. But in the opening of the present century these golden possessions, on which the hold of Spain had been gradually growing feebler, asserted their independence, and formed themselves into Republics. Nine States represent this broken Empire of Spain.

1. Chili, the strongest and most flourishing territory in South America, was conquered for Spain by two successors of Pizarro, named Almagro and Valdivia, of whom the latter founded Santiago. In 1810 a breach took place with Spain; but it was not until the Chilean victories of Chacabuco and Maipú had been gained that independence was secured. In spite of political conflicts, the prosperity of Chili has steadily increased. The jealousy of Spain towards her old possession has been displayed frequently; and recently (1866) in the bombardment of Valparaiso.

2. Peru, after Pizarro's conquest, was made the chief seat of the Spanish Transatlantic Empire. The capital, Lima, rose to such splendour as to be styled "The City of the Kings." Occasionally a flash of the old Peruvian spirit blazed out, as in 1780, when there was an attempt to take La Paz by siege. During the war of independence in Peru, Chili remained tolerably tranquil, owing to the strength of the Spanish rule there; but in 1820 San Martín came from Chili with an invading army and secured the position of Protector of Peru (1821)—a position, however, which he retained for only a short time.

The most remarkable man in the history of the struggle which shook off the Spanish yoke in South America, was Simon Bolívar, born at Caracas in 1783. What he achieved in Columbia will afterwards be described. At the request of San Martín he entered Peru, and took possession of Lima (1822). Appointed Dictator, he led a Columbian and Peruvian army against the Spaniards, who were defeated at Junín, and more signally at Ayacucho (1824). He then resigned the Dictatorship. The Code of Constitution

framed by Bolivar was accepted, but afterwards rejected by Peru, which in 1827 established a Federal Republic after the model of the United States. Continual revolutions have formed the late history of Peru; for transition is always a time of trouble.

3. **Bolivia**, the southern province of Peru, was formed in 1825 into a separate republic under Bolivar, whose name was given to the country. But the Bolivians rejected the Code of Bolivar very soon; and, like Peru, have lived a life of storm since.

4. **Venezuela** owed its prosperity, though a Spanish colony, rather to the efforts of the Dutch in Curaçoa, who promoted the cultivation of cacao. The war of liberation, springing from the troubles of Spain during the Peninsular struggle, began in 1811, when the Spanish flag was cut down, the tricolor hoisted, and a patriot army under **Miranda**, with Bolivar as one of his colonels, took the field. The insurgents were at first successful; but the earthquakes of 1812 so appalled the superstitious people that the royalists got the ascendancy once more. Bolivar, aiding in the arrest of Miranda, accused him of intriguing with Britain; after which he was delivered to the Spaniards, and died in a European dungeon.

In conjunction with Ribas, Bolivar raised a new army, which victoriously occupied Caraccas (1813). The chief then assumed the titles of Dictator and Liberator. So hopeless was the cause of Spain at this crisis that it was proposed to arm even the negro slaves; and a "war of death" began, the royalists murdering prisoners by scores—acts of cruelty which Bolivar was weak enough to retaliate by shooting eight hundred Spaniards in La Guayra and Caraccas. The defeat of **La Puerta** (1814) cast a cloud over the fortunes of the patriots; and for two years Bolivar lived as an exile in Jamaica and Hayti. But the struggle was renewed. The Liberator entered Bogota; and in the decisive battle of **Carabobo** defeated the Spanish General La Torre. The fall of **Puerto Cabello**, the strongest fortress of Venezuela, completed the expulsion of the Spaniards (1823).

5, 6. **New Granada** and **Ecuador** (the ancient Kingdom of Quito) achieved their independence by the same war. By the

Convention of Cucuta in 1821 the States in the north of South America formed themselves into the Republic of Colombia. But in 1831 there was an amicable separation, which dissolved the union into the three States, Venezuela, Ecuador, and New Granada.

7, 8, 9. **Argentine Confederation; Paraguay; Uruguay.** The River Plate (La Plata) was explored in 1530 by Sebastian Cabot, who, being then in the service of Spain, ascended to the site of Asuncion on the Paraguay, which was afterwards founded by Mendoza. The Spaniard Garay founded the city of Buenos Ayres in 1580; and these colonies were attached at first to the Viceroyalty of Peru. To this distant place the enterprising Jesuits penetrated, and they formed out of the converted Guaranis, who dwelt on the Parana, a thriving settlement. But in 1768 the Jesuits were expelled.

Rising in revolt against Spain, like the other States of South America, the Argentine Provinces threw off the yoke in 1810; but the desire of Buenos Ayres to obtain an ascendancy over the other States led to much discord among them. United in 1826, they dissolved their union in the following year; and then a war with Brazil complicated their troubles.

In 1835 Rosas became Captain-general of the Confederacy, and under his iron hand anarchy was crushed for a time. But his efforts to secure for Buenos Ayres the sole right to the navigation of the River Plate excited the anger of Paraguay and Uruguay, which applied for help to Brazil. Great Britain and France, whose merchants had a strong interest in this land of hides and cattle, offered to mediate in the quarrel; but Rosas rejected the proposal. An Anglo-French fleet then (1845) forced its way up the Parana, destroying the batteries of Rosas, and conveying some merchant ships which had been prevented from ascending. At San Lorenzo, on the return voyage, Rosas opened a heavy fire on the fleet; but a rocket-brigade soon silenced his guns.

After England and France had withdrawn from the blockade, Brazil resumed the war; and in 1851, on the plains of Moron.

the army of Rosas was finally defeated. The chief escaped in disguise as a peasant, and soon sailed for England.

Urquiza then rose to the head of the Confederation, but insurrection and anarchy have prevailed in the State since.

Paraguay sprang from the *Missions* of the Jesuits, who founded a settlement, which they jealously guarded from all intrusion, being armed by a royal order from Spain forbidding Spaniards to visit the district without permission. This State, after the breach with Spain, refused to submit to the dominion of Buenos Ayres, and became independent under a lawyer named Dr. Francia, who was Dictator for twenty-six years (1814-40). Lopez, the successor of Francia, adopting a more liberal policy, showed a desire to open Paraguay to the influences of foreign commerce.

Uruguay, or Banda Oriental, was a subject of contention between Brazil and Buenos Ayres until 1828, when, by the mediation of England, the Seven Missions were ceded to Brazil, while the southern part was erected into a separate republic.

BRAZIL.

Discovered in 1500 by Cabral, a Portuguese sailor, Brazil was afterwards explored by Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine in the service of Portugal. Thus it was that a comparatively unknown explorer, who had the good fortune to publish a description of this region with a map, came to enjoy the honour of having a continent, discovered by Columbus, called after him.

When a trade in dye-wood sprang up, and the French began to send ships for this article, King John III. of Portugal planted a settlement by granting large tracts of the Brazilian coast to some of his richest nobles. In 1549 Bahia was founded as a centre of the colony. Resenting an attempt made by some expatriated Huguenots to establish themselves in the bay of Rio Janeiro, the Portuguese then founded the city which forms the capital at present. A vigorous attempt was made also by the Dutch, who possessed themselves of all Brazil north of the San

Francisco, fixing their base of operations at Pernambuco; but they too were expelled (1654).

The Brazilians groaned under two grievances of their government by Portugal; one was the jealous policy of forbidding foreign commerce, which discontented the merchants; the other, the honours and gifts showered upon new emigrants from Portugal, to the exclusion of the descendants of old settlers.

When, in 1808, Napoleon declared war with Portugal, the royal family of Braganza quietly took ship at Lisbon, and sailed away beyond his reach to Brazil. This visit was most beneficial to the American possessions, where printing and free commerce took late root. The Portuguese King, when Napoleon fell, assumed the additional title of King of Brazil, and lingered in that seductive land until, in 1820, the disturbed state of Portugal recalled him to Europe. Before embarking he proclaimed his son Pedro Regent of Brazil; but the dread of being again placed under Portugal in a subordinate and crippled condition, led the Brazilians to declare their independence under Pedro as Emperor (1822). Except at Bahia, there was no bloodshed; for the Portuguese garrisons of Maranhão and Pará were glad to sail away to Europe. In 1825 Portugal acknowledged the independence of Brazil.

When John VI. died in 1826, the Brazilians feared lest his son might prefer the crown of Portugal to that of Brazil. But he sent his daughter Donna Maria to ascend the throne of Portugal, while he remained in South America. The war with Buenos Ayres, ending in 1828, has been already noticed. A dispute with the Chamber, resulting in a popular riot, which the soldiers refused to quell, led to the abdication of Pedro in 1831.

Pedro II., who attained his majority in 1841 at the unusually early period of fifteen, was Emperor during the struggle with Russia, of which some account has been given.

GUIANA.

Guiana, discovered in the sixteenth century by Vincent Pinzon, was colonised in turn by the Dutch, the French, and the English,

who still divide its territory among them. The Dutch (1590) occupied the lower basin of the Demerara; the French took Cayenne; while the English planted at Berbice and Surinam colonies, which they afterwards, in the days of Charles II., yielded to the Dutch. But during the American, and yet more decidedly during the Napoleonic wars, Britain retaliated on the Dutch for siding against her by seizing these, with other colonies. In 1831 Berbice, Essequibo, and Demerara were united into British Guiana. The chief troubles connected with these colonies have arisen from negro insurrections.

SOUTH AMERICAN CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.
Cabral discovers Brazil,	1500
Cabot explores La Plata,	1500
Pizarro conquers Peru,	1533
Dutch expelled from Pernambuco,	1654
Jesuits in Paraguay,	1690-1763
Birth of Simon Bolivar,	1783
Chili, Venezuela, and the Argentine Provinces throw off the Spanish yoke,	1810-11
British Guiana finally acquired,	1814
Convention of Cucuta—forms Colombian Republic,	1821
Brazil made an Empire,	1822
Independence of Venezuela secured by the fall of Puerto Cabello,	1823
Battle of Ayacucho secures independence of Peru,	1824
War between Brazil and Buenos Ayres,	1826-23
Rosas Dictator of Buenos Ayres,	1835-51
Britain and France at war with Buenos Ayres,	1845-48

AUSTRALASIA.

In 1608 the crew of a Dutch yacht caught sight of Cape York in Australia, but saw it vanish without having the least idea that a vast continent, as the huge island may be called, was attached to this projecting point. The coast was gradually traced, especially by the English Captain Cook. The name New Holland, given by its Dutch discoverers, was superseded after 1814 by the present appellation, Australia.

The history of the island consists entirely of the settlement of the various British colonies, now numbering five.

1. In 1788 a convict settlement was planted at Botany Bay on Port Jackson. This was the nucleus of **New South Wales**. Under governors like Macquarie and Bourke, the colony, chiefly devoted to pasturing sheep, prospered well. A new vein of industry and wealth was opened in 1851, when Hargraves discovered gold at Bathurst.

2. In 1829 was founded **West Australia**, or Swan River, a colony which has never thriven well.

3. **South Australia** dates from 1834. No sign of activity was, however, manifest until the discovery of copper in 1842. For a time this caused an influx of emigrants; who, however, were soon turned aside by the news of gold at Bathurst.

4. First colonized in 1835, **Victoria**, or **Australia Felix**, grew rich in wool and sheep, until a desire for colonial independence arose. This was achieved in 1851 by separation from New South Wales. The sudden growth of Melbourne, its capital, has been a wonder of modern life. Where in 1835 a party of squatters pitched a few tents among the gum-trees, in 1861 stood a city of 108,000 inhabitants. This sudden change was largely due to the discovery of gold at Ballarat and Bendigo.

5. In 1859 **Queensland** was separated from the northern part of New South Wales.

TASMANIA.

The island once called Van Dieman's Land, but now **Tasmania**, was discovered in 1642 by a Dutch sailor named Tasman. A convict colony was planted there in 1803, but it was not separated from New South Wales until 1825. Its prosperity as a great pastoral region may be ascribed to Colonel Arthur, who acted as governor for twelve years (1824-36).

NEW ZEALAND.

Every one knows the prophetic sentence, penned by Macaulay in one of his Essays, which declares that the time may come "when a traveller from the great Empire of New Zealand shall stand on a broken arch of London Bridge and sketch the ruins of St. Pauls." The probability of New Zealand ever becoming the nucleus of a great empire is based upon the possession by this antipodean group of many characteristic features which have combined to make Britain great—mineral wealth, a temperate climate, insular form, and occupation by the Anglo-Saxon race.

In New Zealand the missionary was followed by the merchant. But it was not until 1839 that the colony was recognized. There have since been several wars with a cunning tribe of much military skill and daring, called the *Maoris*. These wars arose from disputes regarding the title to purchased lands, for one chief cannot sell in certain cases without the consent of the other leaders of his tribe. A recent war arose (1863) out of the Waitara purchase, afterwards abandoned. William King was the leading chief of the natives, who in their stockaded forts or *pahs* defied our troops for a time. Our loss was especially severe in officers, for the Maori marksmen fired from rifle-pits with deadly aim. Though defeated by Cameron at Tauranga (1864), the natives are not yet subdued; in fact, a kind of smouldering war is chronic in the colony.

AUSTRALASIAN CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.
Discovery of Australia,	1608
Discovery of Tasmania and New Zealand,	1642
Coast explored by Captain Cook,	1770
Convict settlement at Botany Bay,	1788
Victoria first colonized,	1835
New Zealand recognized as a colony,	1839
Discovery of gold at Bathurst,	1851
Victoria separated from New South Wales,	1851
Recent Maori wars in New Zealand,	1860-64

AFRICA.

With the exception of Egypt, the Barbary States, and the Cape of Good Hope, Africa can scarcely be said to have any history beyond the record of scattered settlements on the coast and adventurous explorations into the interior by following the course of the great rivers—Nile, Niger, and Zambesi.

Egypt in 1382 was ruled by a Circassian slave, who founded a Mameluke dynasty that lasted until 1517. The country then fell before an invasion of the Turks under Selim I., who, without destroying the entire influence of the Mamelukes, made Egypt a tributary republic. The government of the Porte was often resisted by these turbulent warriors; but the Ottoman sway remained undisturbed until 1798, when Napoleon invaded Egypt. How the English fleets and armies crippled his powers there has been already told. In 1811 Mehemet Ali crushed the Mamelukes by one cruel and sudden blow, having invited the principal officers to a feast in the citadel of Cairo. By introducing European arts and industry into Egypt Mehemet Ali improved his Pashalik greatly; and by his conquests he so greatly extended his power as to excite the jealousy of the Turkish Sultan Mahmud II. War accordingly arose between Turkey and Egypt (1832), in which Mehemet's son Ibrahim Pacha defeated the Turkish armies and menaced Constantinople. The strife was closed by the intervention of the European powers. A later war had the same result (1840); and, by the treaty which followed the bombardment of Acre by an Anglo-Austrian fleet, Mehemet was stripped of his Asiatic dominions, but the government of Egypt in subordination to Turkey was made hereditary in his family.

The Barbary States, with the exception of Algiers, owe a nominal obedience to the Sultan of Turkey; but over Morocco, which has been governed by the dynasty of the Sherifs since 1544, the Porte has never claimed any sovereignty. Morocco and Southern Spain were at one period of history closely linked

together, especially when Yusef of the dynasty of the Almora-vides established a dominion at both Cordova and Morocco.

Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli acquired an unenviable notoriety for piracy. The brothers Barbarossa, in the days of the Emperor Charles V., acting as admirals of the Turkish flag, swept the Mediterranean with their galleys and ravaged the coasts of Italy and Spain. The Emperor in conjunction with Admiral Doria assaulted Tunis in 1534, and drove Barbarossa II. thence. But the corsair took to the sea, and continued his career of devastation.

Tunis received a sharp lesson in 1655 from Admiral Blake, who battered Porto Farina and Goletta to pieces; but the piracies were not abandoned until 1816, when Lord Exmouth threatened to bombard the town.

Algiers was the principal pirate-nest for several centuries. Seized in 1516 by Hrush—the elder Barbarossa—it passed under the power of his brother, who, submitting to the Ottoman Porte, was made Regent, and provided with a body of Janissaries. The failure of Charles V. in 1541 in an attack upon Algiers, owing to a terrible storm that scattered his fleet, gave this seat of pirates extraordinary powers of increasing their mischief. Following the example of English Blake, the various strong commercial States of Europe wrested forcibly from the Algerines a promise—never well kept—of abstaining from piracy. But Italy was the chief sufferer among the weaker States. At last so crying did the evil of Christian slavery become that the Congress of Vienna resolved to put it down. Lord Exmouth, accordingly, taking advantage of an insult offered to the British flag at Bona, bombarded Algiers (1816), and set free more than a thousand white slaves. In 1827 the Dey of Algiers struck the French Consul in the face with his fan: a burst of temper which cost him his office; for an expedition crossed the Mediterranean, and reduced the territory to the condition of a French colony (1830). Since then the French have engaged in several wars with the Arabs, both for the purpose of securing the colony and of training their armies to face an enemy.

Tripoli was held for twenty-one years (1530-51) by the Knights of St. John, who after their expulsion from Rhodes were placed in Malta by the Emperor Charles V. But the Turkish corsairs having taken it, it became a hot-bed of piracy. A Moor named Hamet Caramanli seized the Pachalic in 1713, and his family kept it until 1832, when the former practice of sending a pasha from Stamboul was resumed.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Dias, a Portuguese sailor, was beaten back by storms from the Cape of Good Hope in 1487: in consequence of which he named it the Cape of Storms. Vasco de Gama succeeded in doubling the extremity of Africa in 1497. In 1620 a band of Englishmen took formal possession of the shore, which derived great value from its position half-way to India. But in 1652 the Dutch laid the foundations of Cape Town, and held the colony, amid ceaseless native wars, until 1795. It then fell before an assault by the English; was restored; and was retaken finally for Britain in 1806 by Sir David Baird and Sir Home Popham.

What the Maoris are to the English in New Zealand, the Kaffirs have proved to our colonists at the Cape. Always ready to break into war, when in action they fight with a vigour and tenacity that render them no despicable foes. The most serious of these outbreaks occurred in 1851. Sir Harry Smith directed the operations against the Kaffirs; and the war did not close until 1853.

Discovery and Colonization.—The Mediterranean coast of Africa was well known to the ancients. The Carthaginians and Romans probably traced the western coast as far as Senegambia, and knew something of the interior and the southern outskirts of the Sahara.

The modern discoveries of the African coast began with Prince

Henry of Portugal, a younger son of John I., who sent out ships that reached Cape Bojador (1415). From Cape Blanco to Cape Verde—thence to the Azores—the progress of discovery advanced before Henry's death, which took place in 1463. The Guinea coast was next traced; Fernando Po discovered the island bearing his name; Diego Cam entered the Congo or Zaire River, and sailed southward to Cape Cross (1484). The voyages of Diaz and De Gama have been adverted to.

The French, having formed an African Company, began to plant settlements on the coast of the continent, which was already studded with Portuguese colonies, vigorously engaged in prosecuting a trade, among other articles, in negro slaves for the American plantations. The Dutch, Danes, and English followed the example. To the last-named nation is chiefly due the honour of penetrating the heart of this sealed continent and making known its inner mysteries to the world.

Exploration.—The River Niger attracted Mungo Park, Denham, and Clapperton. Richard Lander, a servant of the latter, discovered the mouth of the great stream. Bruce traced a tributary of the Nile to its source in the highlands of Abyssinia; but more recently Speke, Grant, and Baker have ascertained that the main stream flows from two large lakes, which have been named the Victoria and the Albert. Livingstone, ascending the Zambesi, has discovered on it the greatest waterfall in the world, and has dispelled the idea that Southern Africa is a desert region. As a great cotton-field inner Africa may yet come to have an important history. The influences of civilization have penetrated it last of all, owing to its lack of inlets or gulfs. The cruelty of an Abyssinian King, who has detained in captivity some British subjects, is now drawing the influences of warlike invasion towards the highlands of a land hitherto unexplored except by adventurous hunters of the lion and the elephant. Whatever be the other results of the expedition, it will serve to increase our knowledge of inner Africa.

MODERN AFRICAN CHRONOLOGY.

	A. D.
Tombing of coast under Prince Henry,	1415-63
Voyage of Bartholomew Dias,	1487
Voyage of Vasco da Gama,	1497
Knights of St. John in Tripoli,	1504-51
Charles V. defeated at Algiers,	1541
Almoravid dynasty in Morocco begins,	1544
Journeys of Mungo Park,	1785-1805
Cape of Good Hope taken by the British,	1806
Suppression of Mamelukes in Egypt,	1811
Lord Harcourt bombards Algiers,	1816
Tim Lashers discover the Niger mouth,	1830
Algiers made a French colony,	1830
Livingstone explores the Zambesi,	1858
Saunders discovers the Victoria Nyanza,	1858
Baker discovers the Albert Nyanza,	1862



